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AUTHOR Healy, Charles C.; Sorenson, A. Garth

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ABSTRACT

This manual contains materials prepared for the Career Counseling Task Forces Workshops, a set of five workshops conducted throughout California to enable educators from high schools and community colleges to coalesce into career guidance task forces for their schools and to learn about current career guidance concepts and practices. The articles, distributed to each participant during the course of the workshop, concern various aspects of career guidance and career counseling programs. Frameworks for counseling programs are presented and information on problem solving, interviewing, career planning and decision-making is offered. Samples of the forms and surveys for workshop use are provided, including a quality of life survey, evaluation instruments for guidance and counseling programs, workshop evaluation forms, and progress sheets. (NRB)

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CAREER COUNSELING TASK FORCES:
A STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROJECT TO CREATE EDUCATOR TEAMS FOR HIGH SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITY COLLEGES IN CALIFORNIA

Workshop Manual

U. C. Regents:
Charles C. Healy
A. Garth Sorenson

University of California, Los Angeles

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CAREER COUNSELING TASK FORCES

Garth Sorenson
Co-Director

Charles Healy
Co-Director

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

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Graduate School of Education
UCLA

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Cerritos Community College

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Dr. Ann Upton
California State Department
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FORWARD

The materials in this workbook, except the chapter on The Nature of Careers, were prepared for the Career Counseling Task Forces Workshops and were distributed to every participant over the course of the workshop. The authors of the materials are indicated in the Table of Contents. At least three advisory committee members reviewed and commented upon each passout and evaluation instrument. The duration of the project did not permit revision of these materials, but the authors would revise them before further use. Some suggestions for revisions can be found in the companion final report.

Introduction

This workshop is designed to help you and your colleagues become a team that will direct the career counseling of your students. We will review important ideas and practices in career counseling, enable you to meet and interact with educators and community leaders who are delivering career counseling services and provide time and consultation for you to create or upgrade a plan for offering coordinated career counseling on your campus. We expect that by the close of the workshop you and your colleagues will be a team, that you will have agreed upon the major components of a plan and conferred with your administration about the plan, and that you will have begun implementing the plan. We also expect that you will increase substantially your understanding of career counseling, your support of promoting student career development as part of formal education, and your ability to counsel students about careers.

We are emphasizing your becoming a team because we believe effective career counseling must be directed by a multidisciplinary team. We will do our best to provide quality instruction, but we believe that most of you will achieve our mutual objective of better career development services for your students only if you and your colleagues leave our workshop as a team committed to such services.

Our experience shows us that teams of educators can sustain delivery of career development services far better than individuals. Moreover, membership on such a team stimulates and supports the ongoing learning that is necessary for the refinement of career counseling. Doubtlessly you will find that your colleagues are invaluable in clarifying the ideas and principles in the workshop and in showing you how to follow through on some of those ideas. Equally certain, your teammates will become even more important in your developing expertise in career counseling after you put your plan into practice.

From our perspective the most important outcome of this workshop will be the plan which your team agrees to try. Consequently, you and your teammates will be given time during each of the sessions to confer about the implications of the workshop instruction for your campus. At the closing session of the workshop, we will expect your team to present its plan to members of other teams. To aid you in developing a plan and becoming a team, our staff will be available for ongoing consultation over the workshop.

The idea around which we hope you will organize your team--coordinating the contributions of teachers, counselors, community leaders, and paraprofessionals into a coherent career counseling services--is at the vanguard of counseling practice. It is a patently sensible and needed idea, though it is being implemented in only a few locations.

COUNSELING TASK FORCE MEMBER CHARACTERISTICS

The following information will help us to determine whether particular characteristics or attitudes are related to effectiveness in career counseling. Completion of the form and each item is voluntary. Your identification number rather than your name appears on the form because following completion of the project, the list of names and numbers will be destroyed to safeguard your identity. Of course, your responses will be regarded as confidential for use of this project only.

Please circle the appropriate responses:

Sex: M F

Age: under 35; 36-45; 46-55; 56+

Career Goal: Retain current position
Change fields
Advance within education field
Other ______________________________

Years as an Educator: 0-5; 6-10; 11-15; 16+

Active Memberships: Union/professional group;
Local business group (Kiwanis, JC, Rotary, etc.);
Volunteer worker (Scouts, CYO, Y);
Church;
Political party;
Social/country club;
Military reserve;
Other______________________________

Years of Work Outside Education (include summer and student jobs):

Satisfaction with Your Occupation in Comparison to Other Educators:

Very high; high; average; low; very low.

Please name and briefly describe the duties of your current occupation (e.g., English teacher - teach literature and composition to 5 sections of H.S. students):

Your Participation in This Workshop is Best Described as:

You volunteered;

You welcomed the invitation to participate on the team;

You agreed to find out about career counseling:

You were sent but are not sure why;

Other, please state: ______________________________
____

Circle Those Career Counseling Activities in which You Believe Teachers Should Participate:

a. Referring students to counseling;

b. Determining with student appropriate treatment and motivating him or her to participate in counseling;

c. Providing career counseling to individual students or groups as long as can consult with counselor;

d. Reviewing outcomes of counseling with student and giving feedback to counseling task force;

e. Teaching infusion lessons such as resume preparation or decision making as prearranged part of course.

College/University Courses Which You Have Completed in Career Counseling or Guidance:

0, 1, 2, 3, 4+

Please complete the following:

Associate Degree Subject ______________________________

Bachelor Degree Subject ______________________________

Master's Degree Subject ______________________________

Doctoral Degree Subject ______________________________

Other Degrees (law, medicine, etc.) ______________________________

(continued on next page)

Please Check Those Activities Which You Have Done as an Educator:

_____ Supervised students in work experience.

_____ Regularly had persons speak about occupations on campus or in class.

_____ Organized field trips to businesses.

_____ Integrated work simulations into my teaching.

_____ Had students set goals and keep detailed records of their own achievement in a class or in counseling.

_____ Integrated career planning instruction into my teaching.

_____ Offered individual career counseling.

_____ Worked with prospective employers in developing jobs for students.

_____ Directly assisted students to obtain jobs.

_____ Led group career counseling.

_____ Coordinated career education or counseling activities.

_____ Evaluated and reported upon effectiveness of career counseling.

_____ Participated on a career education or counseling committee or team for providing school or district-wide career counseling.

(continued on next page)

Check the Activities You or Your Teammates Expect to Do after the Workshop (include those you are doing now and those you anticipate doing):

_____ Collaborate with other educators in offering career counseling.

_____ Offer career counseling to individuals or groups.

_____ Contact prospective employers to secure jobs for departing students.

_____ Teach students the importance of subject matter skills to particular occupations and training programs.

_____ Evaluate career education and counseling services.

_____ Coordinate the activities of counselors and teachers so that they constitute a systematic counseling program.

_____ Involve business, labor, or other community leaders in rendering career counseling services.

_____ Promulgate the notion that career is a developmental, complex phenomenon requiring ongoing deliberation to chart and navigate satisfactorily.

_____ Acquire information from students or their instructors in order to establish their career concerns and needs.

_____ Develop and periodically update your institution's plan for career counseling.

_____ Gather and organize information about career development opportunities for students such as volunteer experiences, extracurricular programs, counseling programs, and self-instructional materials.

_____ Follow-up students after graduation to determine whether they are succeeding in their career and which programs contribute to career success.

_____ Keep abreast of the latest career counseling methods and programs.

_____ Research career counseling.

_____ Create educational materials for career counseling.

_____ Compile data on career counseling services and report them to the institution's administration.

_____ Involve students in the delivery of career counseling as paraprofessionals.

_____ Maintain a record of each counseled student's career progress which enables the student and a team member to ascertain career growth and appropriate next steps. (The record might include courses taken, grades, and skills developed, exploratory experiences and conclusions about them, tentative educational and occupational choices.)

CAREER GROWTH INDEX

Indicate the amount of thinking or planning you have done on the following 40 tasks by checking the rating of each on the five-point scale. The scale is defined as follows:

5 - I have already done this and am no longer concerned about it.

4 - I am now doing what needs to be done.

3 - I know what to do about it and how to do it.

2 - I have thought about it but do not yet know what to do about it.

1 - I have not yet thought much about it.

Career Tasks*	5	4	3	2	1
1. Deciding what I really want to do for a living.	____	____	____	____	____
2. Learning more about various kinds of opportunities.	____	____	____	____	____
3. Finding an occupation that will allow for expression of my interests and abilities.	____	____	____	____	____
4. Learning more about training requirements for certain kinds of work.	____	____	____	____	____
5. Getting to know myself better.	____	____	____	____	____
6. Choosing among the career alternatives I now see.	____	____	____	____	____
7. Deciding what kind of special training to get.	____	____	____	____	____

---

*NOTE: The first 20 items are from the Career Development Inventory (College Form I), Teachers College, Columbia, 1973. Permission to use this material was received from Donald E. Super, the senior author.

	5	4	3	2	1
8. Deciding on an occupation people respect.	____	____	____	____	____
9. Choosing an occupation that will really satisfy me.	____	____	____	____	____
10. Finding an opportunity to get the needed training.	____	____	____	____	____
11. Getting started in my chosen field.	____	____	____	____	____
12. Choosing action steps that will help me achieve my ambitions.	____	____	____	____	____
13. Deciding what sacrifices I am willing to make in order to reach my goals.	____	____	____	____	____
14. Making the contacts that will lead to a job that I want.	____	____	____	____	____
15. Qualifying in the specialty I like best.	____	____	____	____	____
16. Making a place for myself in the company where I work.	____	____	____	____	____
17. Getting settled in a community.	____	____	____	____	____
18. Establishing the kind of home I want.	____	____	____	____	____
19. Finding my own niche in the organization.	____	____	____	____	____
20. Starting a savings and investment plan.	____	____	____	____	____
21. Achieving the job status which I had wanted at the period when I completed schooling.	____	____	____	____	____
22. Participating in community and civic affairs of interest to me.	____	____	____	____	____

	5	4	3	2	1
23. Obtaining the experiences needed for my next promotion or transfer.	____	____	____	____	____
24. Identifying jobs which I could secure within six months, should my current employment terminate.	____	____	____	____	____
25. Feeling that I express some of my important values through my work.	____	____	____	____	____
26. Obtaining the training, degree, credential, or license needed for a promotion or transfer.	____	____	____	____	____
27. Identifying an activity schedule which will be satisfying after retirement.	____	____	____	____	____
28. Accruing investments exclusive of my home which produce 20% or more of my income.	____	____	____	____	____
29. Planning a budget for my retirement years.	____	____	____	____	____
30. Re-examining my work goals in light of my achievements and the changes in our country's economic situation.	____	____	____	____	____
31. Occupying a job which is enjoyable at least half of the time.	____	____	____	____	____
32. Earning a salary sufficient for an acceptable life style and savings.	____	____	____	____	____
33. Pursuing a job which develops the abilities and interests important to me.	____	____	____	____	____
34. Examining the concerns of my fellow workers five to ten years older than me.	____	____	____	____	____

	5	4	3	2	1
35. Achieving a balance between my work, familial, social, and other commitments.	____	____	____	____	____
36. Feeling confident about succeeding in my work.	____	____	____	____	____
37. Participating in my union, trade organization, or profession in a manner appropriate for a person with my experience.	____	____	____	____	____
38. Reviewing my career plans for the coming 5 to 10 years with my spouse, family, or others close to me.	____	____	____	____	____
39. Informing the appropriate supervisors of my expectations for transfer or promotion.	____	____	____	____	____
40. Identifying new challenges in my occupation or field or work so that it continues to be interesting after several years of experience in it.	____	____	____	____	____

SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS

The following information will help us to determine whether particular characteristics or attitudes in your school are related to effectiveness in career counseling. Completion of the form and each item is voluntary. Of course, your responses will be regarded as confidential for use of this project only.

Name of School: ______________________________

Please circle appropriate answers. Circle only those about which you are relatively certain.

Other than Time for This Workshop, College/School Has Allotted Time/Funds for Our Team to Have the Following Number of Days for Planning and Working with Staff:

0, 1-5, 6-10, 11+

The Following Know(s) About Our Participation in This Workshop:

Superintendent/President

Superintendent's/President's Staff

Principal(s)/Dean

School Board/Board of Trustees

Advisory Committee or PTA of School

Student Leaders

Business Leaders in the Community Who Have Helped in Career Education

Personnel with Whom We Have Consulted

The Priority of Career Education in Our School or College Is:

the top high medium low

The Percentage of Students Obtaining a Degree from My School/College Is:

less than 50%   51-60%   61-80%   more than 80%

The Median Income of Students' Families in Our District Is:

under $10,000 $11-15,000 $16-20,000 $21,000+

The Proportion of Minority Youngsters in the School/College Is:

10% or less   11-25%   26-50%   50-75%   76%+

The Typical Student in Our School/College Enters Full-Time Work after Completing the Circled Year of Schooling:

11 or less   12   13   14   15+

Our Schools Draw Students Primarily from:

suburban area   industrial/business area   rural

light business/industry   inner city

The Yearly Expenditure Per Full-Time Student Averages Approximately:

$1,000 or less $1,100-1,199 $1,200-1,399

$1,400-1,599 $1,600-1,799 $1,800-1,999

$2,000-2,199 $2,200+

The Three Highest Priorities in Our College or School This Year in Order of Priority Are:

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

DESCRIPTION OF COUNSELING

Nature of Counseling

Counseling is helping by teaching. Counselors empower a client to use knowledge in developing the skills and attitudes needed for mastering daily living. They are people commissioned by the client or his family or community group to share with the client principles and rules from the behavioral sciences for solving a problem or mastering a developmental task. Many life problems stem from ignorance. Husbands and wives don't communicate their feelings and intentions clearly. Parents are not explicit in their expectations of children, nor always effective in judging the appropriateness of child behavior, nor consistent in rewarding that behavior. Lonely people don't know where to meet people who are likely to be compatible, and they are unable to initiate and sustain social contacts (Szabo, 1973). In regard to careers, many persons haven't learned to appraise their attributes and goals and relate them to working. They haven't acquired the habit of gathering information about career opportunities and changes occurring in themselves as a consequence of working and just living, and they haven't learned to resolve problems, profit from mistakes, and improve their own confidence.

The implications of conceptualizing counseling as teaching are that a counselor helps a person, who is having difficulty coping with everyday concerns, by creating an atmosphere conducive to learning and by guiding the person through a sequence of exercises that provide information, teach skills, or develop habits. The exercises actually constitute a learning program. Counselor and client establish the client's goals and the steps needed for achieving the goals. Then, from the counselor's knowledge, and with the client's assistance, they set up one or more exercises which will expose the client to the ideas or will teach the skills needed for achieving his goal.

As an example of how a set of exercises might be arranged for a client, suppose a 12th grader wanted to obtain a position as teller in the local bank. Others would be seeking the job, so that the student would need to impress the bank manager with his potential. The student and counselor, together, would analyze the objective and decide that the student needed to learn about the duties of a teller, how his skills related to those duties, and how to show the bank manager that he has the abilities needed for the job of teller. Reading about the occupation of bank teller, and then observing a teller and asking specific questions will teach the student about the duties of a teller. Discussion between the client and counselor of the client's skills and a teller's duties will clarify for the client how his skills relate to a teller's duties. To learn how to demonstrate that he has the skills required of a teller, the client can first fill out a practice application and obtain feedback from the counselor. Then the student and counselor can role play the upcoming interview with the manager and make corrections with the help of the counselor. Finally, they would meet to review the outcome of the interview and plan the next steps. Consequently, the counseling consists of these exercises: an initial discussion to set the objectives, information-seeking exercises by the client, a discussion of that information and the client's abilities, completion of a practice job application and feedback, role playing of a job interview with corrective feedback, and an evaluation of the effort.

Counseling is personal. Its objectives and the learning exercises needed to accomplish them emanate from, and focus upon, the client as a person. Skills, attitudes, and insights are developed for the sake of the client. Many disciplines treat topics related to human development. Psychology deals with human learning and motivation; sociology clarifies the impact of human groups and institutions; drama and poetry depict human character and emotion; and economics studies the distribution of resources. Counseling differs from such disciplines primarily because its goal is to help the client relate pertinent principles from the disciplines to his own life. The objective of counseling is that the person master personal developmental tasks, rather than master a discipline. The counselor assists the client in selecting and applying the knowledge of such disciplines to his own circumstances. The larning program is individualized for the particular client.

A broad spectrum of media and techniques are used by a counselor to teach clients. Direct face-to-face communication is still most common, but counselors have integrated audio and videotaping, computers, slides, filmstripes, records, and movies into counseling. Traditionally, career counseling has included testing and interpretation, role playing or rehearsal, and extra counseling assignments to acquire information. More recently, counselors have added self-directed exploration manuals and programs, simulations, and relaxation exercises to their repertoire of techniques.

Counseling distinguishes itself from other teaching in its development and utilization of a trusting interpersonal relationship to facilitate a client's learning or change. The hallmark of a counselor is her ability to persuade her client that she is interested in knowing him and is committed to helping him with his concerns. She accepts his person nonjudgmentally without necessarily approving particular behaviors or motives. This trust enables the client to examine his situation honesty and deliberately and to employ varied strategies for improving his situation.

Counseling as a purposeful activity has goals. These goals limit the scope of the counselor-client relationship. The goal may be to improve a domestic relationship, reduce phobic behavior, or acquire greater career self-awareness. Whatever the goal, it limits the information to be sought about the client, as well as the commitment of the counselor to the client. In stating goals, it is important that the counselor not covertly suggest broader goals by the questions she asks or the responses she makes to a client. Multiple goals can, of course, characterize a particular counseling, thus expanding the scope of the relationship, as well as counselor responsibility. Even with multiple goals, however, client and counselor prerogatives and responsibilities are limited by the nature of the accepted goals. A counselor, for example, who is assisting a group of 9th graders in improving their career self-esteem should inform them that improvement of self-esteem is their purpose. Then if in the course of the group session, one student asks for help in relating better to his parents, the counselor need not assume responsibility for providing such help. It would be appropriate for her to acknowledge the request and that, though it is an important goal, it is beyond the realm of the group's purpose. Ideally, she would suggest another source of help or even offer to help outside the group if she is competent. Of course, if the counselor or group will not provide help, it would be unfair and confusing to encourage the youngster to bare concerns and details about the family situation. However, an objective and understanding acknowledgement of the problem and a reminder of the limits of counseling are appropriate and will maintain the career counseling relationship.

Establishing goals in counseling and agreeing about what each party will do in achieving them is tantamount to establishing a learning contract. Social psychology suggests that the actual declaration of a goal is very important becuase it increases client commitment to achieving it, and it makes clearer the expectations of counseling. Formalizing the counseling contract has the advantage of making explicit that both parties will work cooperatively until the goal is achieved. This is especially important since counseling is an educational process in which some false starts and recycling are the norm. Likewise, contracting can aid accountability. Few counselors now report using formal, written contracts, even though many studies of individualized instruction support use of contracts in individualized instruction. As a consequence, I urge counselors to seriously consider using formal contracts.

The counseling contract is a major way of distinguishing counseling from other instructional activities of a counselor. By contracting, the client and counselor commit thmselves to work toward a goal, and at least implicitly both agree to the means whereby the goal will be achieved. When counselors give information, interpret tests, teach a problem solving strategy, or review a person's plans without a contract, neither party is committing himself to achieving a particular outcome. Without the commitment and explicitness about the intended outcome, the outcome is less likely to occur. Doubtlessly, the activities are valuable in themselves, and providing them exclusive of a counseling relationship may enable the counselor to offer them to more people. Yet, in themselves they are not counseling. For in providing them exclusive of a counseling contract, neither counselor nor learner are obligating themselves to personalize the information, nor to relate the problem solving strategy to a real problem, nor to support implementation of a personal plan.

Counseling is likely to be differentially effective. Defining counseling as special teaching highlights the fact that growth through counseling depends upon the content and learning skills which the client brings to counseling. Consequently, the client who historically is an effective student is likely to derive more from counseling in a shorter time. The client who is effective in information acquisition and processing and knows how colleges operate, for example, is more likely to obtain accurate information about particular programs, than the client deficient in these skills. Consequently, the counseling program for the latter must build in exercises for developing such competencies, and even with such exercises, the counselor should not be surprised to find the former client progressing more rapidly than the latter.

Similarly, counselors should expect clients overwhelmed with self-doubt or beset with multiple problems to have poorer prognosis. Such feelings limit the client's capacity to fully examine and learn about his problem and they may precipitate premature action. The distress usually stems from the client's sense that he is failing at tasks other like him are managing. The concerns prompting counseling are generally not physical ailments nor external threats, but rather interpretations of everyday problems. Such perceived failures threaten his sense of mastery and makes him feel less than a person in our society which idealizes the autonomous, coping individual. As a consequence, some clients may be inclined to flee, panic, cry, give up, or lash out and this interferes with their putting their problem into a perspective that would enable its resolution.

Specific communications and social learning strategies or techniques are the recognized tools of counselors. These techniques foster trust and facilitate completion of the counseling exercises. Particular exercises are selected through task analysis of the client's goals. Although many of these teaching techniques derive from client-centered counseling and behavioral psychology, counselors of most orientations use them. Indeed, classroom teachers employ many of the same techniques. This author has classified the techniques into the six broad areas described in detail below. It is recommended that the counselor utilize some or all of the techniques in counseling for each of the career developmental goals described later in this book.

1. Explaining the Task and Procedures

Counselors explain their objectives and the operation of a procedure by speaking clearly and slowly, by giving examples familiar to a client, by themselves illustrating or modeling what they want a client to do, and, more recently, by drawing the client's attention to suitable models or by showing films of appropriate models. If modeling is used, research suggests that counselors select as models those who are the same sex as the client, have high status, are peers with high social power, and are similar to the client (Hosford, 1969). Counselors also encourage questions. They answer them cordially and as directly as possible, and sometimes they give clients a written description of counseling or even show films to insure their expectations are clear.

2. Involving Clients in Counseling

Counselors invite clients to talk, ask open-ended questions, and wait for the client to respond in order to encourage participation. A counselor's posture, expression, and total attention to clients show clients that they are expected to talk. Periodically, the counselor paraphrases what is being said, reflecting the feeling, as well as the content of the client's communication. In group counseling, the counselor calls clients by their names; redirects one client's question to another; points out similarities among clients' work experiences, interests, talents, and aspirations, and encourages them to do the same; and guides clients to discover how their backgrounds relate to the group discussion.

Recognizing that everyone wants to be on a "winning team," a counselor subtly tells clients that they are in "good hands" and will become winners through counseling. The counselor exudes enthusiasm, and may disclose either how he succeeded in pursuits similar to the clients, or how he was helped by counseling, In groups, counselors involve clients by eliciting testimonials about their benefits from counseling.

Ownership of counseling is also shared to promote client involvement. Client contributions, such as theme songs for groups, assistance in setting up exercises/equipment, explanations to one another, elaboration and extension of concepts are welcomed to the degree time constraints permit. The periodic request for the client to summarize not only aids evaluation, but it also promotes client ownership of counseling.

3. Diagnosing the Need for, or Evaluating, Progress in Counseling

Counselors weigh the data received from and about a client before and during counseling to determine an appropriate learning (counseling) program for the client and to pace counseling, If information about client need and progress are forthcoming, as one would expect from effective use of explanation, involvement and reinforcement techniques, the counselor has only to process information. If needed data are not forthcoming, the counselor asks direct questions, or if client understanding is unclear, asks the client to demonstrate progress by giving examples. After discussing a strategy for improving communication with a work-study supervisor, for example, the counselor might ask the client to describe what he or she will do in the next meeting with the supervisor. The counselor asks for this description to be sure that the client can say what to do before moving to the next step.

In evaluating progress, the counselor may use written tests, or periodically he can recap his understanding and ask the client to correct it as necessary. Ongoing verification may seem superfluous, but interview communication, especially the nonverbal element, lead to many misinterpretations which such verification can prevent. Indeed, research of counseling suggests that in successful counseling, counselor and client language converges, and that counselor and client are in more agreement about what transpired.

Clients, of course, evaluate their counseling progress, too, and their judgment in part reflects their interpretation of the counselor's assessment. Positive client evaluation of progress and the contribution of counseling should increase commitment to counseling, while negative client evaluation may lead to withdrawal or at least obstruct further learning. As a consequence, counselors should continually monitor client evaluations of counseling. They should share with clients their evaluation matrix so that clients are more aware of how to judge their own progress. Counselors might even wish to share their evaluations with clients directly in order to preclude misunderstanding. Clearly, Rogers' (1951) early admonitions against evaluation are in part directed at the dampening effect of negative counselor evaluations of client progress. Counselors cannot avoid evaluations, but perhaps they can be more explicit and open about them.

Since continuing a client in counseling itself reflects optimism about outcome, counselor input into the counselor-client review of progress is likely to be positive. Even when the progress seen by the counselor is not as great as that hoped for by the client, joint review will enable the client to be more realistic. This will alert the client sooner to the probable needs for patience and perseverance. On the other hand, eliciting negative client evaluations early through joint review can alert the counselor that he has either failed to communicate reasons for optimism or that there are aspects of the problem he may have neglected. In either eventuality, the early warning may enable the counselor to correct the difficulty before the client withdraws.

More and more counselors now collect ratings from clients upon termination of counseling. Perhaps even more valuable would be to collect such ratings after every session, in order to enable communication problems to be identified quickly. Certainly, the notion that a client is an aware responsible partner in counseling supports the practice of closing each session with a mutual review of accomplishments and next steps. The input into the review might be oral or written.

4. Reinforcing Constructive Counseling Behavior

Counselors believe that behavior which is reinforced is more likely to occur, and thus they reinforce a client's efforts to cooperate in establishing a trusting counseling atmosphere, and in accomplishing the counseling exercises. Counselors praise constructive actions and they elicit group praise for it. They also encourage a client to feel the gratification which comes from learning and achievement of a goal by such simple mechanisms as suggesting that the person take a moment to consider how it feels to be successful. When client statements are only partially correct, the counselor modifies or completes them, rather than labeling them as erroneous. In addition, the counselor rewards clients by listening attentively to them.

Counselors remember that what is reinforcing for one client may not reward another, that rewards loose their potency with repetition, and that variation is itself rewarding. In initial client contacts, counselors ascertain what is rewarding to the client. Especially, they respond to the universal "Let me try!" or "Let me say it!" of learners and consequently, pace instruction so that clients can practice new skills or demonstrate new knowledge and feel the inherent satisfaction of succeeding.

Clarifying/Confronting Resistance

Counselors must sometimes make explicit a client's noncompliance with the counseling program. Several tactics are useful. A counselor can reflect or mirror the difficulty which the client is manifesting. A counselor may also focus client attention on contradictions in his actions, as is exemplified by the counselor who directs the reluctant client to consider his facial expression and his tone of voice in saying that he is trying to let himself go in the role play exercise. An even more direct approach is to point out the noncompliance and engage the client in telling his feeling about noncompliance. Sometimes, counselors can guide clients in examining their feelings by interpreting what the noncompliance means. For example, to the client resisting involving himself in role play, the counselor might say; "You are finding it hard to let yourself act as if this were real just as you found it hard to ask for assistance in using our library and in asking for assistance in securing a suitable job. It is as if you feel getting assistance in securing a job raises doubt about your capability of handling a job."

As clarification emphasizes the contradiction in client behavior and becomes confrontative and even interpretative, the counselor increases client anxiety. Either this will lead the client into a defensive posture, which can obstruct learning, or it will spur him to more openness in order to reduce the tension arising from the confrontation. Before using confrontation, a counselor must judge that the confrontation can be tolerated by the client, and is more likely to aid progress more than other actions such as focusing on another topic, attempting to shape a compliant response without direct acknowledgement of noncompliance, or delaying the problem counseling component until the next session.

Confrontation is risky, and to be professional in its use a counselor must be especially sensitive to his interaction with the client. Brammer (1973) calls this being sensitive to "fine shades of feeling in oneself." In his examination of confrontation, Brammer (1973) distinguishes several types of confrontation, and he suggested seven guidelines for giving "feedback," which he termed a strong type of confrontation. These guidelines appear related to all confrontations and consequently, are modified for confrontation in general and summarized here.

1. Confront only after the counseling relationship is strong enough for client to tolerate the stress it produces and appears ready to examine the contradiction it brings into awareness.

2. Describe the client behavior which is the object or source of confrontation, as part of confrontation.
3. Confront the behavior giving opinions about it, rather than judgments about the person.
4. Confront those actions which can be changed by the client within the context of counseling.
5. Confront small amounts of behavior so the client can react without being overwhelmed.
6. Confront current behavior.
7. Elicit and observe client responses to confrontation in order to prevent misunderstanding and to assure that one deals with potential client resentment.

6. Problem Solving

Counselors employ specific strategies for helping clients who are unable to keep up with the counseling (learning) program. Most counselors provide additional information or models if they judge that a client needs such information, and they teach or have taught concepts and skills which will assist clients in the program. For example, to aid a client to profit from group counseling, a counselor might teach assertive or listening skill to a client on an individual basis. Routinely, counselors alter the pace of counseling to prevent procrastination or enable full comprehension. When clients resist progress, the counselor helps them by using such techniques as: (a) encouraging them to examine the consequences of not proceeding, (b) refocusing counseling to enable a client to see where an as yet unlearned concept or skill fits in solving a problem, and (c) increasing their motivation by pointing out others who are going, or have gone through the same process and are being rewarded as a consequence. In a group, counselors can bypass resistance by ignoring distracting or unproductive behavior through redirecting attention to a client whose behavior is productive. In problem solving, counselors can advise the client directly about how to proceed or they can help him to discover how.

Nature of Career Counseling

Career counseling is specialized counseling focused on career implementation and planning. The career counselor helps a client: to generate and utilize self and career information, to obtain and interpret experiences relevant to careers, to set goals and solve problems, and to evaluate progress. Typically, career counselors join clients in developing the motivation to acquire self and career understanding, in establishing frameworks for organizing and synthesizing information, and in formulating and enacting problem-solving strategies and plans. The clients of career counselors are individuals who have failed to learn what is needed for their career development through existing informational materials and educational programs, or persons who wish expert advice and reaction to their career development, or persons who lack access to appropriate information experiences and career positions.

Information giving, class scheduling, testing, and test interpretation are often considered the main activities of career counseling, but in actuality they are only elements and sometimes are not included. Indeed, such activities only become a part of counseling if they are integrated into a learning program for achieving a goal for which the client and counselor contract. If these activities are done without direct attention to their relevance for the individual, they are not counseling, but merely services which a counselor instead of a clerk happens to offer.

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To receive career counseling, a counselor should determine that the client lacks information, skill, or access to resources needed to create an effective career. The problem is educational rather than medical, and the help is teaching rather than therapy. The client may be anxious because he is not progressing in his career. Effective career counseling requires that the helper establish that the anxiety stems from failure to progress, rather than from underlying personality confusion or dysfunctional thinking. Necessarily, the counselor judges whether to reduce anxiety immediately by augmenting anxiety reduction activities in counseling, or by more slowly adapting the teaching strategies so that they are effective with an anxious learner. The counselor might also refer the acutely anxious client for concomitant anxiety reduction exercises. Progress in career counseling should itself reduce career-related anxiety, but it is unlikely to radically change a client's personality (Tyler, 1969).

Even with the physically and mentally ill, educational deficits are the major component of the problem addressed by career counseling. Thus, a career counselor working with a handicapped client will identify strengths and learning capabilities not paralyzed by the handicap, and he or she will guide the client in utilizing those assets to define and achieve meaningful career goals. For instance, a carpenter suffering severe psoriasis which precluded further shop or construction work, was helped to recognize the selling ability he was developing through his church work. He was guided to select training which refined that ability, and later the counselor assisted him in entering a sales position in a firm which handled carpentry-related products.

From its outset, around 1900, formal assistance with career development has been offered as an educational undertaking. Pioneers such as Parsons (1909) used the interview to clarify a client's goals and attributes, to verify the client's accurate interpretation of assigned observation and reading, and to guide the client's selection of an appropriate course of action. These pioneers had clients do individualized homework assignments, including reading and job analyses in order to clarify self attributes and work opportunities. We can infer that they facilitated these assignments by coordinating with employers. They probably even arranged job tryouts similar to the ones available in the vestibule schools of World War II.

As advances were made in ability and interest measurement and as career helping moved into schools, the helpers, by then termed counselors, added testing, record review, activity tryout, modeling and advising to their set of strategies (Williamson, 1939). During the same period, interest in physical and mental hygiene supported the establishment of courses and homeroom activities for assisting youngsters in their development, including their career development.

The number of counselors was small in these years before World War II. Often counselors served several schools from a district office. Consequently, they acted as consultants and coordinators. They welcomed the proliferation of self-development manuals and vocational guides, using these resources to strengthen their consultation and the teaching which they coordinated.

As understanding of learning and communication technology expanded in the 1950's and 1960's, simulation and role play exercises, computer counseling programs, and peer and paraprofessional coaching exercises were added to the array of counselor strategies. In addition, vocational measurement and career materials were upgraded, and counselors started receiving systematic training in interviewing and counseling, resulting in improvement of these strategies. By the 1970's, counselors had employed a broad array of increasingly improved strategies in facilitating the career development of their clients.

Individualizing Career Counseling

The essence of counseling is individualizing. To achieve this, counselors prescribe learning strategies and join clients in making the strategies work. The process of individualizing has four stages: (1) establishing client needs, goals, and the obstacles to them, (2) identifying and then selecting particular strategies, (3) teaching and assisting the client in implementing solutions, and (4) verifying accomplishment of the solution and achievement of the goal. Sorenson (1967) has developed a counseling method following these stages, but the stages themselves provide a useful overlay for understanding individualization. Many counseling procedures described in this book emphasize Stage 3, and have given minimal attention to Stages 1 and 2, with only somewhat more attention to Stage 4.

Stage 1

The uniqueness of each career requires understanding the person as an individual. Sorenson (1967) has identified five elements of the client's situation that must be understood: (a) his perceived goals, (b) perceived obstacles, (c) beliefs about means for achieving the goals and removing obstacles, including expectations about whether others will or can be helpful and notions about what appropriate risks are, (d) actions already taken, and (e) feelings about the goal, including confidence about succeeding and motivation to succeed. Jim's case offers concrete examples of the five elements. He was unable to choose between entering graduate school and becoming a programmer. At intake, the counselor established that Jim hoped to be financially independent and advance into management. Jim believed that a graduate degree from a prestigious private school was essential. He felt that his #3,000 savings would not be sufficient to support himself and pay tuition and that he would need part-time work. Still, he had applied for two major shcools, but was interviewing firms for programmer jobs in case he was not accepted for graduate school. Overall, he was ambivalent, couldn't sleep, and was having difficulty concentrating on his studies.

Since counseling is a special kind of teaching, a sixth important datum is how the client learns and how he expects to learn through counseling. Some people learn easily from reading, others benefit more by observing and imitating a model, and still others profit most from oral discussion in interviews. Since the counselor is putting together a learning program, he is very interested in the methods which have been effective for the particular client.

Related to the preferred mode of learning is a seventh factor, the client's expectations from counseling. Internally-controlled, self-confident clients make more progress in counseling than other clients. Very possibly the explanation is that such clients and counselors have the same perception of what a client is supposed to do as a consequence of counseling. Clients with a different perspective, however, will not know what is expected of them and therefore, may not effectively utilize the help provided.

Counselors are very conscientious about the professional consensus of what their role in counseling is to be, as suggested by the many professional articles on the topic, but they give surprisingly little attention to what clients expect of counselors. Certainly, clinical impressions suggest that many working class clients expect their middle class counselor to tell them the educational program or occupation to enter, or to find them a suitable job, or even to rearrange their environment so that the bothersome conflict is eliminated, or in some other way intervene for them. After all, the counselor has the power of the establishment. Such clients may not realize that the counselor expects to help primarily by equipping them with new skills and courage. Moreover, these clients may not believe that they really can improve their own situation, for they know few people who have been thus empowered through counseling.

Each of the seven points affects the content and method of delivery of the prospective counseling program. Juxtaposition of the impediments to the solution with strengths demonstrated in previous problem contexts should suggest approaches for a client acquiring the necessary competence and should suggest how difficult solving the problem will be. For example, information deficits for an avid reader will suggest direct library research, while a sorority member's wrenching conflict about study for a "man's profession" because of lack of experience in technical pursuits will suggest work-experience exploration.

As a consequence of clarifying the seven elements, one concrete goal should stand out. Identifying a specific goal and realizing that the counselor understands that desire will reassure the client. On the other hand, discounting one of the seven points risks creating a learning program that has already failed, or conflicts with client beliefs, or ignores learning styles, etc.

Fig. 1--A Test of Adolescent Career Development Experiences

1. During the past year, I have

A. found out about different high school programs which I could enter
B. examined several occupations as possible alternatives
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

2. During the past year, I have

A. decided how many more years I want to stay in school before getting a full-time job
B. decided whether to go to college, into the Armed Forces, into a job, or into a job training program
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

3. Which of the following is *most* true of you?

A. I choose courses which do not require much work.
B. I choose my elective courses so that I can be with friends.
C. I choose electives to find out more about my interests and abilities.
D. I choose electives in which it is easy to earn high grades.

4. During the past year, I have

A. learned the salaries of occupations in which I am interested.
B. learned about the demand for workers in occupations in which I am interested
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

5. During the past year, I have

A. discussed financing my training after high school with my parents
B. discussed scholarships and loans with a counselor or teacher
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

6. During the past year, I have

A. taken courses which have helped me to explore my interestes
B. been a volunteer or worked in a job which helped me explore my interests
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above.

7. During the past year, I have

A. had an opportunity to explore some of my abilities and how they relate to people who are successful in certain occupations
B. found out how far in school people with abilities like mine usually go
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

8. Which of the following is most true of you?

A. My parents will make the decision about whether I go to college.
B. My decision to work or continue my schooling after high school will depend upon what my friends do.
C. I have obtained information about jobs and college so that I can decide what to do.
D. I am not concerned about college or work and will take whatever is available after I graduate.

9. During the past year, I have

A. learned about apprenticeship and other job training programs which I could attend
B. learned about colleges which I could attend
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

10. During the past year, I have decided upon

A. a specific training program to enter after high school
B. a specific occupation to enter after completing school
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

11. During the past year, I have

A. discussed job and/or college training programs with a counselor
B. found out how people enter occupations that are of interest to me
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

12. During the past year, I have

A. found out the occupations people with interests like mine enter
B. learned which training programs are open to me and which ones interest me
C. done BOTH of the above
D. done NONE of the above

13. Which of the following is most true of you?

A. I usually discuss my plans and decisions with my parents and/or teachers or counselors.
B. I usually ask the opinion of a close friend when I am planning.
C. BOTH of the above
D. NONE of the above

A counselor will know that this stage is over when one or more of the following emerge as impediments to client accomplishment of goals: (1) insufficient opportunity, training, effort, or ability for acquiring the concepts and skills for reaching the goal (The person doesn't know entry requirements for possible occupations and doesn't know where to obtain such information.), (2) misconceptions or misbeliefs about reaching the goal (A person believes a placement officer hires applicants for different companies.), (3) situational or system barriers (A machine is not equipped with a bench so that an amputee can operate it.), (4) an erroneous or incomplete formulation of the problem (The city policewoman graduating in accounting conflicted by her equal attraction to professional accounting and law enforcement until she articulates these desires and recognizes that they signal an occupation such as FBI agent, internal revenue agent, etc.), (5) inappropriate affect for the nature of the problem (The freshman emotionally paralyzed because there is no job guarantee upon graduation.), and (6) insufficient or ineffective pursuit of the solution (The employee trying to relate more cordially to a boss who feels discouraged after only two days of trying a new approach.). Should the counselor fail to detect one or more of these deficiencies, he will have to delay proceeding, for either the client can secure the goal alone or the problem spurring the request for counseling has not been presented. Sometimes establishing that the problem is improperly formulated and then correcting the formulation will lead to termination of counseling, for the client will feel the problem has dissolved or is solvable with his current skills.

Ideally, a thorough review of these seven points occurs for every client. Time constraints, however, often force experieneed counselors to make tentative judgments about particular clients, based on limited review and on their experience with other clients from the same population. Proceeding on the basis of such tentative hypotheses is legitimate, so long as a counselor continually verifies the tentative hypotheses as data pertinent to them surface. In other words, the counselor is very humble in this approach to understanding the client. He asks the client whether particular conclusions are accurate, rather than announcing them as fact.

Screening procedures can give counselors more time for the clients who are likely to have problems requiring career counseling. At least two alternatives are possible: have clients complete screening tests that distinguish those needing and not needing counseling, and enlist teachers or work supervisors in identifying counseling candidates. The former procedure is more viable than ever because of the proliferation of valid career development tests and checklists, at least for those in the pre-work phase of their career. Items such as those in Figure 1 can identify high school students who are lagging in career progress. To implement the latter alternative, one would acquaint teachers with behaviors that signal the need for referral and with the counseling strategies available for them, and mutually counselor and teachers or supervisors would develop a procedure for systematically observing and communicating the observations. Maurine Kukic and Steve Kukic (1972) described the implementation of such a teacher-screening system for high school students in a suburban California school district. The personnel office of the Security Pacific National Bank now uses such a system for its personnel management.

Stage 2

In Stage 2, the counselor alone or the counselor and client together do a task analysis of the goals and obstacles to generate alternative courses of action. Necessary steps for each goal are identified, and a list of ways of achieving the steps are generated. Then to evaluate each alternative, the requisite knowledge, skills, and resources, and the methods of acquiring them are examined. Client and counselor next judge the relative merit of alternatives in terms of the information from Stage 1. In accomplishing this step the counselor may interview, review records, test, consult, observe the client in vivo or simulation, etc. Current research on diagnosis and differential effectiveness of particular counseling exercises is only beginning, so that logic and common sense rather than empirical evidence must guide the counselor's prescription of counseling strategies.

Excerpts from Jim's case illustrate the activites of this stage. As a consequence of reviewing his situation, Jim said that his first goal would be to secure a programmer's job with potential for advancement, and his second goal would be to obtain additional training in order to advance in programming.

He and the counselor then identified the steps for the first goal. These included composing a resume, presenting it to prospective employers, and then communicating competence through the interview. Jim asked his counselor to review a draft resume and to suggest where to get it printed. The counselor wondered aloud whether other actions would improve the resume. Jim wasn't sure, but in answer to cue questions, acknowledged that examining sample resumes and obtaining advice from an alumnus in programming might improve it.

Jim also acknowledged that he was worried about interviewing and suggested that he might practice on recruiters of companies in which he wasn't interested. The counselor noted that this might help Jim, but not the college's reputation, and suggested that Jim would obtain more help from viewing model recruiting interviews, then role playing some before a video camera with the center's guidance technician, identifying strengths and weaknesses, and finally practicing corrections.

When these alternatives emerged, Jim decided that the interview training was best. Moreover, he elected all three alternatives to improve his resume. As the session closed, Jim said he would return to review the resume and to report on the progress in interview training and in securing employment interviews. The counselor observed that they could contract to review the situation and make additional plans as needed. Jim agreed.

The first and second stages of counseling overlap in operation, although not in conception. As the client considers alternative solutions his goal, as well as his feelings and beliefs regarding it become clearer. By the close of Phase 2, client and counselor should agree about their respective responsibilities regarding further work on the goal.

Stage 3

Learning and applying strategies inside and outside of counseling are the tasks of Stage 3. Client and counselor have now agreed on a goal and on a course of action that the client will execute. Traditionally, interviews and test taking and test interpretation comprised that action, but other strategies such as completing a series of job simulation exercises or reading an assertion training manual are also appropriate. Likewise, peers, family members, teachers, workers, and other resource people may be more directly involved in these activities than the counselor. The counselor's task in this stage is to support the client in learning, not only by direct teaching, but also by securing and coordinating the assistance of others.

In the case of Jim, for instance, a guidance technician directed Jim's acquisition of interviewing skills, and a working programmer assisted him in composing a resume and in deciding upon suitable employer prospects. Even the scheduling of on-campus recruitment interviews was handled by a clerk. As a consequence, the counselor felt counseling was progressing even though his contact with Jim in this stage consisted of a brief phone call, in which Jim announced that he and the technician felt he was ready to interview and that he had scheduled two campus interviews.

Application is the completion of the learning within counseling, and it frequently must be done independently by the client. The counselor and others involved in the learning, of course, eagerly await the report of the results in order to help confirm their effectiveness and perhaps to know how to assist in making adjustments. When the obstacle is a situational or system restraint which reasonably should not obstruct a person and which is not easily removed by an individual, the counselor and others assisting in the instruction may also act on the client's behalf.

In the case of Jim, it became necessary for the counselor to intervene with a prospective employer on Jim's behalf. Jim had committed a misdemeanor which ordinarily would preclude employment with the firm. However, the counselor's ability to present character references to the firm's vice-president, a person not accessible to employment applicants, enabled an exception to be made for Jim.

Stage 4

In Stage 4, counselor and client verify the application of the learning strategies and judge their effectiveness. The strategies are continued until they take effect, or if necessary, new strategies are substituted for unsuccessful ones.

This review is an important step for the client, because it clarifies how he solved his problem or permits timely efforts at revision. Examination of the process of changing successfully can motivate the client to continue the change and can increase his confidence in making changes in the future.

The review step also helps the counselor. It provides an opportunity for making the minor adjustments that may be necessary for sustaining the change; it gives the counselor evidence about the success of his teaching; and it provides the data needed by a counselor in establishing accountability.

Evaluation was a crucial stage in Jim's case. He missed his first interview because of a traffic jam; and although he arranged for it off-campus two weeks later, this experience elevated his anxiety and contributed to a poor performance in the second interview. Upon learning of this from the recruiter, the counselor phoned Jim, who felt ready to give up and focus primarily on getting into graduate school. However, he agreed to meet to review the situation.

In that meeting, Jim began to feel better as he told of the progress he had made in defining a goal, preparing a resume, and learning and demonstrating effective interviewing. He recognized that he should have expected a setback or two; and since practice had helped before, he suggested a session of role play with the technician, and asked permission to interview the next recruiter seeking programmers.

Predictably, Jim's final meeting with the counselor several weeks later was much shorter. Jim described the programmer's job he was taking, and thanked the counselor for assisting him in "getting his head together" and in learning how to secure a job.

Team Delivery

Clearly, individualization, which is the essence of counseling, does not rule out several persons sharing the counseling function. As the case of Jim illustrates, paraprofessionals and community leaders provide services which time and experience constraints prevent the counselor from offering. Certainly, the classroom instructor is also often in a position, because of his or her expertise and regular contact with a student, to deliver services which a counselor could not normally render. For example, faculty members daily observe the skills and work habits which enable or prevent a student from holding a job. Routinely many faculty have and hopefully will continue to point out strengths and weaknesses in this area and advise students about means of improving such skills and habits. Regular contact and interaction with students through subject matter and student productions, such as collages and autobiographies, have enabled other faculty to become the approachable or expert adult with whom a student can review career plans or decisions. The career education movement has shown many faculty how to increase motivation for learning by "infusing" career development exercises into instruction; that is, one teaches a lesson (e.g., circle graphs) in a manner that stimulates a student to ponder such career relevant issues as the competition for professional jobs (graph projected number of openings by occupation) or differences in life style associated with different occupations (graph typical day or budget of a laborer, lawyer, secretary).

Doubtless, you can think of several other functions for teachers. Indeed, that is what we hope you will do. Be careful, though, not to regard such thinking as merely an academic exercise. Instead, realize that we intend you to come up with a set of functions for faculty, counselors, administrators, paraprofessionals (including students, if you wish), and community leaders which your team will meld and coordinate into an effective career counseling system.

To integrate different professionals, paraprofessionals, and community leaders into career counseling delivery there must be identifiable student concerns associated with different treatments. Fortunately, career development theory suggests several distinctive concerns, such as lack of career growth experiences, lack of occupational educational information, lack of basic skills, lack of decisionmaking ability, lack of positive work habits, and lack of job search skills. Moreover, tests have been published which enable estimating a student's achievements relative to these. Of course, tests are not the only way of identifying students in need. Teachers, counselors, and paraprofessionals can learn to evaluate the student relative to the concerns via interview and review of the student records. What is fortunate is that there are distinctive facets of career development upon which agreement about student progress can be obtained and that the student will readily recognize the need for action once deficiency is pointed out to him or her. The second necessary ingredient, distinctive treatments targeted for the different career development areas, is also a reality. These include: "career development infusion" lessons and projects which enable a student to accomplish particular tasks while learning required subject matter; self-instructional materials such as the Science Research Associates Job Simulations and Career Games which a student can do individually or in groups; films and programmed instruction for particular developmental tasks such as job interviewing, resume preparation, and career decisionmaking; shadowing exercises, employee interviewing and minilessons; and particular kinds of individual and group counseling. Once a

Figure 3

SAMPLE COORDINATING CHART OF CAREER EDUCATION ACTIVITIES FOR ENGLISH AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE COURSES

		Self-Awareness	Career Awareness	Planning/Decision-Making
English	1.	Basic English skills - 3* Test/interpretation weekly exposition skill chart-autobiography - 2	Newspaper simulation - 10 Interview with newspaper personnel - 3	Case study of Tom Sawyer as decision-maker - 5
	2.	Basic English skills Test/interpretation 3 Biweekly oral communication skill chart	Biographies of one skilled and one professional acquaintance 6 Advertising agency simulation 5 Interview advertising personnel and marketing personnel 5	Alternatives available to characters in Macbeth/generating others 5
	3.			
	4.			
Foreign language	1.	Weekly listening skill chart - 10	Tourist Bureau simulation - identify occupations represented in publicizing the country being studied; identify key facts about it - 5	Study/assignment scheduling 3
	2.	Weekly translation skill chart	Translator simulation - identify areas in which translation done	
	3.		Art/culture fair - critique aspects of country's art/culture	Case study of decision/planning of literature characters Construct educational plan for entering the occupations of foreign language teacher, foreign service officer, translator, noting amount and kind of language required

*Number of class periods

student recognizes a concern, he and a member of the counseling force can review his past learning experiences and the nature of the counseling options on his campus to ascertain which is likely to be most feasible. For example, the college freshman recognizing that he hasn't been planning and making his own decisions would weigh the feasibility of taking a section of English literature wherein many decisionmaking activities are infused, would consider joining a guidance group that would play three rounds of the Life Career Planning Game (a decision simulation game), or would consider proceeding through a self-directed program for learning decisionmaking. After agreeing upon the treatment, student and task force member could draw up a contract indicating what the student would do, when he would accomplish it, and how the student would judge his effectiveness. On the contract they would also note the person with whom the student would review progress to be sure the student was satisfied.

Figure 2 illustrates the types of information about infusion activities which a coordinator could assemble to aid in assigning students to infusion treatments. Of course, the coordinator would also have a list of other treatments targeted at particular career development tasks for a Counseling Task Force member to review with students.

For some career development tasks, most students will need assistance. To meet this need, the coordinator might arrange particular infusion lessons for all classes in a subject so that all students can upgrade themselves. Or, these concerns might become the focus of a required career guidance class. Figure 3 illustrates how different career development areas might be scheduled for coverage in particular classes. Of course, after students have had the infusion lessons, they should evaluate their progress. Without doubt, some students will find that they are still deficient. They can then be directed to an alternate treatment.

The Workshop Agenda and Content

The workshop is organized into instructional units or modules that cover a wide spectrum of ideas and practices and involve educators and community leaders. Figure 4 is the agenda. Below is a brief description of each module.

Fig. 4 Workshop Agenda

Session	Dates	Topic	Place
1	10/26, 11/9	Intro Project and Career Development	UCLA Extension Bldg. Rm. G 33
		Planning for a Career Counseling Team	Same
		Two-hour team meeting (Note: Every session will include a 1-1/2 - 2 hr. team meeting.)	Same
2	10/27, 11/10	Comprehensive Career Counseling	Same
3	11/30, 12/7	Discovering Successful Career Strategies	UCLA Faculty Center
		Interpretation of Strong-Campbell and Self-Awareness	Same
4	12/1, 12/8	Smorgasbord of Counseling Practices	El Camino College
5	1/4, 1/11	Interface Panel	TBA
		Occupational Clusters	TBA
6	1/5, 1/12	Placement	UCLA Placement Office
		Trouble Shooting	UCLA Classrooms
7	2/1, 2/8	Evaluating Counseling Formatively	UCLA Extension Bldg. Rm. G 33
		Decision Making	Same
8	2/2, 2/9	Laws Relating to Career Counseling and Testing	Same
		Team Presentations of Plans	Same

CAREERS

Natural endowment, social class, the state of the economy, national policy, and even chance itself influence an individual's career. Together their influence is substantial, and each of these factors is beyond the individual's control. Why, then, a book in methods of helping people to create their careers? Would not a text on career adjustment be more appropriate, since one can argue that only a fool will expend energy trying to plan and create who he or she wants to be when the outcome is already determined?

Clearly, expressing oneself through a career is, and probably always will be, a challenging undertaking, for it requires continuing effort, vigilance, and adaptability. Fortunately, however, people can choose the abilities and interests they build and use at work, even though nature puts some constraints on the degree of such development. They can understand the world of work, including economic cycles, access routes to opportunities, and manpower programs. Furthermore, they can even learn to cope with chance.

People who are handicapped, victims of discrimination, or from disadvantaged families and communities will have to strive harder to take charge of their careers. At times their efforts may have to be even heroic, but people such as Helen Keller, Ralph Bunche, Abraham Lincoln, and countless others have shown that self-expressive careers can be created. And as these people have shown, the career then reflects the human capacity to meet and master adversity rather than be overwhelmed by it.

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In most careers there will be points where compromise and adjustment are necessary, even desirable, but at other times one will want to alter the self and/or the situation. Only occasionally may these efforts be feats of public notice and acclaim, but nonetheless they will reflect human determination and ingenuity in improving rather than merely in "coping" and in "adjusting."

Many careers appear to happen, but this book is written in the belief that most careers can be created. The key ingredients are understanding, determination, and ability. Every person, barring a major handicap, has multiple, continual options. In order to exercise these options, the person must: (a) stay alert so that he recognizes the options, (b) pick the ones for which he possesses or can build the necessary abilities, and (c) apply himself energetically and persistently after choosing. Moreover, since there are multiple options, the person, like a stock trader, can accept that some career influences are beyond prediction and control and that some of his efforts will fail, but that he can nevertheless succeed by assuring he is correct more than he is incorrect. And he can do that by working vigorously to insure that his neglect is not the reason for the failure of an option.

"Sense of agency" is a term coined by Tiedeman (1967) which effectively communicates the personal perspective needed to take charge of one's own career. The concept communicates energy, ongoing application, and struggle. First and foremost, the person continually strives to understand himself and the forces that are creating him. According to Thoresen and Ewart (1976), the careerist must struggle persistently to win control of the career. Each has many arduous tasks, including: "analyzing the environment; committing oneself to take action and maintain action; identifying and altering faulty perceptions, beliefs and attributes; trying out new ways of acting; and restructuring the environment to promote change and foster encouragement" (p. 37). Perhaps even more demanding is the need identified by Ginzberg et al. (1951) to know when and how to compromise.

Although there are more career opportunities and more ways of achieving them than ever before and although our financial resources force fewer people to work purely to survive, Americans are having many problems with their careers. One recent federally commissioned report stated that workers in every occupational strata are suffering tension, illness, and general dissatisfaction because their work had lost its challenge and opportunity for personal development (O'Toole, 1973). For many of these workers, the report went on, satsifaction requires radical changes in work design and substantial increases in access to new training programs. Many other observers have also noted this malaise. In Working, journalist Studs Terkel presented interviews with a broad cross-section of workers. Almost invariably these typical employees were dissatisfied due to repetitiveness, and lack of challenge. Work wasn't meeting their expectations, and they felt entrapped by rigid salary and pension systems and lack of transfer opportunities. A Nader report of an intensive study of nine blue collar workers revealed similar feelings of worker dissatisfaction and lack of hope.

The discontent is not limited to lower-level workers. Sarason and his colleagues (1976), reporting on high-level professionals, confirmed that discontent was not limited to blue collar workers. Physicians, lawyers, dentists, engineers, scientists, and college professors may suffer boredom after several successful years of work, and they feel the same powerlessness to correct the situation. Following up 240 persons who were enrolled in clinical psychology 25 years later, Kelly et al. found that nearly half of the 80% responding would not have become clinical psychologists if they had it to do again. Apparently, however, most of these workers were doing little to change their situation, and the O'Toole (1973) report suggested that there was little that they could do. Implicitly, most hadn't learned to "engineer their career" as Thoresen (1976) termed it, and reports such as Nader's, Terkel's, and O'Toole's suggest that many observers don't believe that careers can be engineered by the worker.

While there may be disagreement about the extent to which it is possible for a person to direct his own career, there is no disagreement that directing a career is difficult and that pursuit of a career is fraught with emotion. A career can bring happiness, excitement, accomplishment, and tranquillity; but it can also bring sadness, frustration, and anxiety. Terkel's work implies that professionals promoting another's career development will often meet clients when they are anxious, bewildered, apathetic, frustrated, etc. That very distress will make it more difficult for them to build the skills necessary for directing their careers. For the very reason that he or she will be called upon to help another person who is under stress to grow, but who feels unable to succeed, the career helper must be a professional.

Scope of Career Counseling Over the Lifespan

This book is for counselors who want to empower human beings to create productive, satisfying careers. It describes and critiques procedures for teaching people the concepts and skills which can enable them to judge what needs changing, to change, and to decide when accommodation is preferable.

The concept of career is the starting point. This chapter defines the concept and examines six propositions about career that are important to career counseling. The remaining chapters in Part I examine the human characteristics which are central to career and the structure of the work system in which modern careers unfold.

Part II of the book describes my view of counseling and examines issues related to improving counseling through evaluation. Part iii then presents detailed descriptions of counseling methods for assisting persons at various points in their careers. Organized around one stage of development, each chapter in Part III describes the broad developmental tasks of the stage, the prerequisites necessary to profit from career counseling at that stage, details of particular counseling methods, case excerpts illustrating methods, empirical evidence for the methods, and outcome objectives appropriate for the stage's career counseling methods.

Career: A Perspective

Career can be defined as the sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his pre-occupational, occupational, and post-occupational life. It includes all work-related positions such as those of student, employee (or employer or self-employed worker), and pensioner, together with complementary avocational, familial, and civic positions. Careers exist only as persons pursue them; they are person-centered (Super, 1976). A position becomes part of a career if it is a work position, if it prepares the person for a work position or enhances the person's work, or if it is a direct consequence of working. An avocation, therefore, may or may not be part of a career depending upon whether it contributes to work directly as when a stamp collector manages a hobby shop or indirectly as when model railroading relieves the tensions of management or when the hobby arises from the career, as in the case of the executive who takes up golf in order to meet his or her bosses. Positions such as volunteer or extracurricular participant are career positions for some but not all people, and in some cases, one will be able to recognize that such a position was part of the career only in retrospect.

By definition, there are more than 220 million careers in progress in the U.S. The person, as the key ingredient, defines the career by how he or she acts in each position. Many careers are comparable because they include similar positions in a similar sequence, but each is distinguishable because of how the person performs the position. For example, two well-known contemporaries, Presidents Lyndon Johnson and Gerald Ford, compiled very different congressional and presidential records even though both rose from the working class to commissions in the U.S. Navy to congressional seats, to party leadership in Congress, and eventually to the U.S. Presidency. The personal character of a career means that understanding a particular career requires attending to the unique characteristics of the careerist; that is, awareness of individual differences is essential to capturing the essence of particular careers.

Understanding career requires recognizing that it is essentially a response to man's need to work. The need to work or produce goods and services is a natural and a societal need, for humans by nature must acquire goods and services from other humans in order to survive, and societies exist in part because their members believe that they expand or at least insure the availability of goods and services.

In our society, everyone is expected to work in order to compensate for the goods and services he receives, and as a consequence everyone is expected to prepare for working. Nevertheless, in our society the prominence of the work role varies, principally in terms of sex, age, and social class.

Many middle-class American males act as if the career embodied their major efforts to fulfill a calling or vocation. They expend substantial personal and material resources in preparing for, and advancing in their career. On the other hand, men who are not middle class and many women attribute less significance to their careers (Tyler, 1976).

Children devote little attention to careers, and young adolescents give it only slightly more, even though the skills and habits acquired in childhood and the choices made at the start of adolescence have profound effects on the career. By late adolescence and early adulthood, career becomes and remains for many years a focal point for most men and for increasing numbers of women. As young adulthood turns to middle adulthood, women who had foregone careers in order to raise families turn their energies to paid employment, while the veteran worker has begun rethinking his or her approach to working. Finally, as old age approaches and career involvement declines because of institutional customs and declining energies, the prominence of career fades. Yet the success and satisfaction of the career continue to influence the quality of life, for in retirement society provides rewards commensurate with career attainment.

In regard to social class, one can say that there are careers and there is leftover work for the lower class. The middle and upper classes can look forward to careers of stable, continually challenging, and satisfying work in what is termed the primary labor market. In contrast, lower class persons are far more likely to find themselves in the "secondary labor market" in a series of unsteady, menial jobs, with prospects no brighter than those proclaimed in the coal miner's ballad: "You load 16 tons, and what do you get/Another day older and deeper in debt."

Throughout the book, several common words referring to careers will be used with very specific meanings. Table 1 presents the terms and their meanings for this text. The table represents an attempt by Super (1976), in concert with several vocational psychologists, to establish conceptual uniformity for the study of the phenomenon of career.

Insert Table 1 about here

Careers Are Mandated, Not Chosen

The linkage of careers to human production and to societal existence renders careers subject to economic, sociological, political, and psychological forces. As a consequence, a career cannot be whatever a person wants it to be.

Most people create their careers as they do only because at some point in their lives, usually throughout most of their adulthood, they must pursue one or more occupations in order to earn a living. Nearly everyone aticipates pursuing an occupation, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics predicts that more than 90% of the boys and girls born today will work on the average more than 40 and 25 years respectively. Few people, however, would work at their current jobs or at least as steadily as they do, if they did not need the earnings their jobs produce. People would react in this way because in every job there are involuntary components. In some jobs, the amount of personal subordination to the dictates of others is less than in others, but even in the most attractive professions such as medicine, law, athletics, and entertainment, the worker usually would produce differently or not at all, except for his wages. The involuntary character of work is sometimes obscured as other aspects of work gain attention. Recognition that most people obtain most of their income by working has underscored work's strong influences on the lifestyle, both its material character and time availability. The realization that community and civic organizations seek professionals to guide and promote them has prompted social scientists to note that working, especially in prestigious occupations, becomes almost a sine qua non for meaningful participation in the governance of one's own community.

In equipping people for their work role, one must not obscure the compulsory character of work. Yet society's need for work has led to emphasizing the pleasurable activities that comprise working and preparing for work and to de-emphasizing its somewhat arbitrary nature and tedium. The knowledge that a few people can meet the demand for work through activities which they generally enjoy and that most jobs have at least some components which are potentially pleasurable has spurred people to discount the involuntary aspects of all work, and instead to strive to locate and enter fantasy work positions. Such beliefs, unfortunately, are often taught to people who do not fully understand that their chances of achieving the desirable occupation are slim. They may not even recognize that they are gambling, nor appreciate that they will have to defer many of life's pleasures to achieve the occupational goal and then to maintain themselves in it. In the long run, a distorted presentation of working is more likely to turn people against working. It seems unethical, therefore, to encourage all people to focus large amounts of their energy on preparing for work under the expectation that their jobs can be tailored to their needs for self-realization. More ethical is the acknowledgement that work will be required, although not as much as in the past, and that jobs requiring personal commitment and competition will probably be more rewarding than less demanding jobs. Human actualization, as always, will require additional achievements in the family, social, civic, religious, artistic, and recreational spheres. For many people, achievements in these noncareer roles may be more actualizing.

Economically, available resources, including raw materials, capital equipment, existing technology, both apparatus and organization, and the supply and demand for particular goods and services influence what can be produced and how it can be produced. For example, most of our transportation and communication equipment could not have been produced 100 years ago because of the lack of resources, and of course, most communication and transportation occupations were unknown then. Today lack of demand is limiting use of such things as horses, and consequently there are few blacksmiths. Similarly, lack of capital goods such as farm machinery and fertilizers are restricting adoption of modern agricultural methods in "third world" countries, and as a consequence agriculturists with advanced specialized training from our agricultural colleges cannot readily find employment in the "third world."

From a sociological perspective, existing institutions influence the nature of work and careers directly and indirectly. A society's insitutions define roles and positions, thereby delimiting how a person can act in a particular career. National and international corporations are notorious in demanding middle managers to periodically relocate in order to move up the corporate ladder, and at times modern bureaucracies drive people to amass more power and responsibility than they can manage (Peter, 1974).

Apprenticeship, licensing, and credentialling laws define avenues of access and codes of behavior for particular occupations. In a less direct manner, labor unions and professional and vocational schools influence how many people with what backgrounds and experiences will enter an occupation. Moreover, they influence what workers will do on their jobs by their work rules and by their training. In academia, for example, the scholarly organizations with their journals sustain professors' commitment to publishable research in the face of administrator and student demands for increased attention to teaching. These organizations have this power because they influence professional prestige, and promotion in reputable universities depends more upon individual visibility among peers than upon the calibre of one's graduates.

Institutional interface such as labor-management negotiation, corporate-professional organization lobbying of government, and even international treaties influence what occupations can exist and how they are executed. There are many examples of such activity, but one apt reminder for the reader is the fact that the counseling and clinical psychology professions came into existence as a consequence of the GI Benefits programs following World War II.

Institutions not only influence the nature of particular jobs and occupations, but they dictate their interrelationships, and they actually create careers. Glaser (1968) has adopted the term "organizational career" for this phenomenon. He has noted: "Some organizational careers advance persons in different--usually more skilled--work; some merely advance the career while the work stays the same; and some make the work easier or less skilled. . . . Organizational careers guide the person into kinds of interpretations, perspectives or meaning of his work and his performance of it, his responsibilities, his powers, his rights and privileges and his identity, and they guide other appraisals of the person on these dimensions. Further, the organizational career structures each stage, the various people within and outside the organization that a person will work and associate with. . . . The organizational career literally moves the person through the organizational structure or freezes him in one place. . ." (p. 14).

In view of institutional influences upon careers, workers need to understand a job's context as well as its content, that is they must "avoid missing the forest by concentrating on the trees." For in opting to pursue a particular education or occupation, one not only affirms the legitimacy of the immediate office which one enters, but also tacitly supports the policies which brought it about and sustain it. The tragic Nazi holocaust and subsequent Nuremberg judgments illustrate mankind's belief in our responsibility to be aware of the context and consequences of our actions. Certainly people who are aware of the institutional forces controlling jobs will better understand the likely consequences of occupying a position and therefore will be better able to control the chosen positions. One who regards only the visible demands on position, while ignoring institutional influences, risks the delusion that he/she is creating a career rather than merely adjusting to institutional dictates.

In terms of the political influences, such societal decisions as those about distribution of wealth, public ownership, taxes, regulation of work and commerce significantly affect the kinds of careers that are possible over the short, intermediate, and long term. The emergence of the modern corporation and large government agencies are the results of a series of political decisions. Shorter term, more visible effects on careers are seen in legislation about minimum wages (increases tend to eliminate low-level service jobs), safety and pollution regulations (creating ecology jobs and eliminating hazardous occupations or at least altering how occupations are performed), gambling (creating jobs like blackjack dealer), etc. Taxing and funding policies, relating to education, on the other hand, illustrate intermediate-term effects on possible career options. In our country, for example, extensive support of higher education has multiplied the number of professional/technical/managerial workers, whereas the system of research and development grants has supported the maintenance of an elitist system of medical training.

Psychologically, a person's abilities, values, experiences, and capacity to know and ponder himself and his world influence the work he will do. Our civilization is built upon many capacities--speaking, writing, reading, counting, acquiring, and processing information, planning, building, etc. Even though we have built machines with such capacities, man's continued evolution requires individuals to have such skills and to generate new ways of employing them. Without goals, whether hedonistic, aesthetic, or altruistic, however, man's talents would be dormant. And without opportunities to learn and exercise them, the abilities would not emerge.

Perhaps most important is man's capacity to envision himself and a world as the reality in which he is to act and thereby define and become aware of himself. This capacity to know oneself and one's world and eventually to use that knowledge in guiding one's passage through life explains why man, unlike all other animals, has adapted the world rather than adapt to it and why economic, sociological, political, and even psychological forces will influence his career but will not annihilate him as a species in the manner that they have rendered other species extinct.

Attribution of this power to human beings is the reason that the preliminary chapters of this anthology of methods for promoting career progress are psychological rather than sociological, economic, or even political in perspective. The task for the reader is to understand how people can view career so as to acquire and apply social science knowledge to improving career. As a consequence this chapter focuses on imparting an understanding of a model of how people relate to work overtime and develop a career self-concetp that can in time guide that relationship, of how society acts to shape the career self-concept and ideas about careers generally, and of the intertwining of career satisfaction with life satisfaction.

It is beyond the scope of this text to teach the many sociological, economic, political science, and psychology concepts and principles that relate to careers, but counselors who wish to assist clients to understand their career worlds will be helped considerably in that task by acquiring such knowledge. At the minimum, every counselor should have the equivalent of a basic college course in each of these disciplines.

The linkage of careers to work also alerts us to expect that careers will be different in content and connotation over time as economic, social, political, and psychological factors change. Limited capital and technology, for example, required 18th and 19th century workers to toil longer to produce enough for survival. Rigid class structures of feudal times limited the work particular people could do, interfering, for example, with the development of banking; political intolerance of countries such as the USSR restricts distribution of goods and services, curtailing development of service jobs and occupations, while beliefs about the importance of a person's selecting his or her own occupation have extended the time required of Americans to prepare for the working part of their careers beyond their European counterparts. Perhaps the thing most certain about careers in the future is that their content and connotations are likely to be different, and those differences will in part be due to economic, societal, political, and psychological changes.

Career Includes One's Vocation and One's Occupation

Career is not just another word for vocation or occupation, which refer respectively to a person's calling to a special life's work and to a set of jobs with similar duties and prerogatives. Rather the concept of career stands for the belief that there is consistency over a lifetime in a person's relation to work. The continuity and coherence over a lifetime stem from the facts that people seek out and repeat the familiar, that our educational work system encourages specialization, and that there are multiple similarities across occupations and training positions, such as requirements to follow written and oral directives, meet time schedules, travel to and from work, cooperate and accept interdependence, and complete assignments. Of course the anticipation of similarity among work positions helps people to face the prospect of multiple occupational changes without fear. Indeed, within a career context, changing occupations can be a virtue, for different occupations can be construed as developing different facets of the self without altering the person's challenges radically. From such a perspective, career becomes the path for self-development and assumes the positive connotation of the vocation.

Similarity across career positions, in turn, assures that different workers approach working similarly because it demands similar accommodations. This is especially true as youngsters share increasingly more hours of the same general formal education, and the same socialization by the media about working and consuming. Moreover, as more people work for large corporations and large government, which are growing more monolithic in organization and administration, their careers become ever less distinguishable.

Not only does the concept of career accord with the sameness over an individual's worklife and among a society's workers, but it supports our society's ideals of equal training and work opportunities. For everyone can have career with comparable responsibilities rather than a distinctive calling with special prerogatives. Every career may represent the unique nature and situation of the person, but if its expression is important to all persons, in fairness, an egalitarian society must strive to provide each individual the opportunity to work to his maximum self-development.

The concept of career, therefore, is useful in characterizing a democratic people's relation to work in 20th century America as the concept of vocation was useful in describing pursuit of a particular kind of work in earlier times.

Of course, to the degree that a person's relation to work alters drastically over life or to the degree that people's work differs greatly, the concept of career is less useful and may even be harmful. For example, the civil service clerk who becomes an inventor-entrepreneur and necessarily exercises new skills and attitudes and seeks new work satisfactions is relating to work in a radically different manner such that she might better be considered as having two careers. Similarly, toll bridge collectors and architects are in occupations which overlap so minimally in duties, training, and work satisfactions that identifying them as careers may obscure their differences. As a consequence, it should be remembered that the concept of career is really a theory about the human connection to work rather than established fact. Over time the definition and utility of the concept of career will change to accord with new understanding and new ways of relating to work.

Propositions Related to Guiding a Career

The following propositions about career help guide career progress: Careers develop people; a person creates a self-concept in relation to work, and this increasingly can guide the career; careers are social/economic necessities shaped by institutional forces and guided by socialization; and career satisfaction is inextricably linked to life satisfaction. Each is discussed below.

Careers Develop People

The view that careers develop people who in turn develop their careers is widely used by educators in designing programs to assist people relating to work. Pioneered by Super and his colleagues (Super et al., 1957, 1960, 1969), the postulate affirms that a career is a lifelong process of adaptation related to preparing for work, working, moving among work positions, and leaving the world of work. It involves, according to Super et al. (1957), "The progressive increase and modifications of (a person's) capacities and dispositions for particular behaviors related to work."

The concept of career development postulates that a career builds upon what a person has done, is doing, and hopes to do and that its evolution can be thought of as progressing through stages. The development of careers is continuous but not necessarily unalterable. A person's past is part of his present, and his present influences his future, but present action and future aspiration can often alter past development (Allport, 1937). Research on career traits and work habits shows that there is consistency in them over time and place (Holland, 1964; Strong, 1955; Brenner, 1968); but other research shows that traits change (Strong, 1955; Sears, 1977), and work habits can be altered (Oetting & Miller, 1977). People's career positions and performance of them influence eligibility for subsequent positions, either opening up or foreclosing positions. Yet, people who have not taken science and mathematics in high school have eventually entered science and engineering, even though Project Talent data (Cooley, 1968) suggest that this would be the exception. Likewise, people who have occupied a series of unskilled and semiskilled jobs occasionally enter executive suites or become professionals, even though Abigellen (1955) has shown that such is an exceptional career.

Career development signifies focusing energy and refining assets, but it also implies foreclosing some options, as Tyler (1969) has pointed out and as Robert Frost has expressed so poignantly in The Road Not Taken. Unfortunately, the development is not always positive. O'Toole et al. (1973) have documented how some jobs can stifle ambition and depreciate skills and self-confidence. People are fortunate, however, in that often the likely consequences of a career position can be predicted.

The career stages are ongoing and overlapping. Each continues throughout life, but generally one stage is primary at each point in life. The timing of each stage is codetermined by the society's educational work system and by human nature. Every society evolves an organization such that persons in the same age cohort tend to act similarly. The parameters of the organization are dictated by factors of human nature such as physical and mental maturation, but the particulars of a stage vary across cultures. In agrarian societies, for example, by 13 or 14 adolescents are well along in mastering the duties and culture's knowledge of farming, while American adolescents only begin to master occupational duties toward the end of their teens after they have explored their compatibility with several.

Support for the notion of career stages stems from the observations that social institutions have ordered themselves in a manner that career progress involves moving among them and that living takes a person through predictable phases. For instance, people move from home to school, from school to work, and then among distinctive types of work such as production and managerial work. Finally, one passes out of work back into the core of the community. These movements can be considered as altering the manner of living and, hence, as starting a new stage. Moreover, our education-work system is vast and complex, but interdependent and at least to some degree hierarchical. For although there are thousands of training programs, and nearly a hundred million jobs, one needs educational and sometimes work prerequisites to enter most jobs and advanced training programs. Even for unskilled jobs, one often requires at least 10-12 years of successful schooling. Such prerequisites are an ordered set of accomplishments, the existence of which attest to the fact that modern career progress requires passage through stages.

The argument for stages based upon human development, on the other hand, begins with the recognition that humans as members of one species share similar growth patterns. Many observers have conceptualized the human growth pattern as progressing through stages. On the physical side, for example, infants make random sounds before combining them into words and then they gradually combine words into two, three, four, and five word sentences. Similar passages occur in movement and thinking capabilities, leading observers to infer that for many accomplishments, a person's physiology and experience must reach a particular level and the environment must afford the opportunity, and perhaps even the stimulation and modeling for it. Moreover, for the more complex accomplishments, it appears that component simpler accomplishment must have occurred. In other words, accomplishments build upon one another. Although the area of study is very new, evidence is accumulating that if the environmental supports are not available within a period after appropriate physiological maturation, the person may never be able to achieve the particular competence. As a consequence, failure to achieve simple competencies may impede acquisition of complex competencies.

Psychologists and counselors have found it useful to regard careers as consisting of five stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. The titles of the stages characterize the major effort of the person in that period, although the functions of the stage titles go on across the career. More specifically, theorists like Super (1957) characterize the stages as follows. In the growth stage, the child acquires the tools, habits, attitudes, and awareness of opportunities needed for a career in his culture. Exploration, in turn, is the time when the child become adolescent examines the appropriateness of different options and readies himself for particular options as he tries out options. Following is establishment, wherein the now young adult follows through on an appropriate option and improves himself relative to it in order to advance and secure the position. This leads into the maintenance period, wherein middle age signals the time to start consolidating and rounding off accomplishments rather than opening new vistas. Over time, aging necessitates decreasing activity and preparing to leave work activity in order to be able to reserve energies for the more basic life activities.

In 1951 Super noted that the ages Americans could expect to experience the career stages were approximately:

Growth	0-14
Exploration	15-24
Establishment	25-44
Maintenance	45-64
Decline	65

As changes in work accelerated in the 1960s and 1970s, Super (1976) re-emphasized the dynamic aspect of stages, noting for example, that many people in the establishment or even maintenance stages might appropriately re-engage in activities of the exploration or even growth stages. For example, a plumber conscious of the declining number of plumbing jobs due to increased use of prefabricated materials might appropriately be pursuing a business degree while plying his trade. Similarly, a homemaker who had been a teacher of French and was preparing to re-enter work after raising children might try out several courses, including a career appraisal course in order to identify occupations that were now compatible with her characteristics and aspirations.

Each career stage has broad, distinctive tasks which must be accomplished in order to succeed in the stage and move on to the next stage. The tasks and particular accomplishments of every stage are necessarily changing with changes in our educational-work system. Identifying them requires ongoing observation of successful careers. Theorists and observers have indicated some of the tasks which are listed in Table 2. These lists are based on limited time and geographic observations and so are necessarily incomplete. Possibly some tasks are even outdated for people in our society generally. Consequently, counselors will necessarily have to systematically observe and verify or even identify tasks. For particular subgroups like minorities, women, or the handicapped, such observation and identification are even more essential.

Insert Table 2 about here

Counselors can establish particular accomplishments as necessary to career development by showing that their achievement permits career progress while their neglect or failure retards it. There are five kinds of evidence: (1) controlled experimentation which demonstrates that persons improve their career development after accomplishing the career task, (2) consensus among expert observers that a particular task is requisite for career development, (3) consistent testimony by persons progressing in their career that a particular accomplishment promoted their career, (4) verification that persons who have accomplished the career task lead people who have not done the task in career development, and (5) task analysis of the career challenges faced by the target population.

The idea of career development generates a matrix of broad achievements related to career progress. These achievements are necessarily more abstract than are achievements for an occupation or school, for they must incorporate achievements in different occupations and schools. For example, Table 2 shows that a career development task of the early establishment stage is achieving eligibility to perform one's work. It does not specify whether that eligibility means achieving journeyman status in a trade, passing a licensing examination for one's profession, or securing the required permits, premises, stock, and credit lines for one's own business.

Analysis of particular achievements can indicate the necessary competencies, and their identification in turn can provide guidance in building a career curriculum. Carried further, the idea of identifying needed career competencies from developmental tasks suggest establishing domains of particular tasks. However, it must be remembered that such specification would have to be continuous since the tasks will change as the educational-work system changes and that only some of the tasks will be relevant to each individual. Illustrating the latter is the case of the person with minimum intellectual capability. He has not the same need as a bright student for an indepth understanding of the training requirements and duties of professions requiring four years of college. Indeed, as people move into distinctive career domains such as vocational, general, academic high school programs, and different occupations, the commonality of career tasks can be expected to lessen.

As a consequence, the broad career development matrix can be the starting point in establishing career development programs and in setting goals for individual clients, but since clients are likely to have unique tasks depending upon their circumstances, needs, and resources, the counselor should not expect that a career development matrix will soon be the basis for a directory linking career objectives to counseling strategies. There will simply be too many entries. This is especially true for people more advanced in their career development.

The concept of career development stages, nonetheless, provides one conceptually reasonable way of organizing counseling strategies because people in a particular stage by definition share common past accomplishments and present challenges. Moreover, counselors have traditionally served people at one or two stages (students in the exploration stage or young adults struggling with establishment) and consequently are likely to concentrate upon strategies appropriate to the stage. As a consequence, the strategies in this text are clustered in terms of developmental stages.

The Career Contributes to the Self-Concept

People are not passive observers of their careers. Youngsters as they grow, acquire an emerging consciousness of themselves and increasingly choose from among alternative experiences. Observing this, vocational psychologists have posited that youngsters develop a self-concept or an ego, which begins to control their experiences. That aspect of the self-concept concerning work can be considered the career self-concept. The self-concept is who the person believes he is; it includes his perceived abilities, interests, and values. The ideas are initially concrete, but become more abstract with maturation. Over time, this self-guiding mechanism expands and becomes more differentiated, enabling the person to exercise control over more of his experiences. For example, the six-year-old ice cream lover who disdained spinach becomes the adolescent who values a balanced diet including green vegetables, but periodically rewards himself for his dietary discipline with an ice cream sundae.

People start creating their careers in childhood through reactions to parental expectations and home/community opportunities. Home furnishings and activities, household conversation and entertainment, family outings, toys and games provide models and materials for role play, practice of skills, and development of interests. With increased skills and mobility, the child becomes proactive as well as reactive. Fun in growing and identifying house plants leads the budding horticulturist to the library in search of books for erecting and outfitting a backyard hothouse. Over time, patterns in style, energy level, skills, and interest begin to emerge. As the person pursues postsecondary schooling and enters an occupation, his or her style is more consistent and predictable. These positions in turn shape him. What teacher, for instance, is not at least somewhat pedantic, what lawyer not officious, or what truck driver not rough and ready? For most people this process of defining oneself in terms of career continues over their lifetime, for every career remains capable of, and even requires, further expression. Indeed no one can ever fully control his experience and no life contains enough hours to express all of a person's potentials.

A self-concept reflects expectations. People expect to have careers because their family and community expect them to work and expect them to behave in certain ways as a consequence of the career they are pursuing. People may not define "career" in exactly the same manner as the social scientist, but they recognize that careers are that part of their identity connected with the occupation they will do, are doing, or have done. Career is the role which they fill in meeting their responsibility and exercising their right to produce. Indeed, for most people, the career self-concept becomes a classification for selecting and organizing experiences relevant to their working. As the person matures, a repertoire of expectations, habits, and attitudes accumulates for the person's relation to working, creating a "psychological set." This "set," which can be termed the career self-concept, in turn influences how the person reacts to phenomena that he or she labels career. Over the years, the set becomes strengthened, and complex changes in it require ever greater expenditures of energy.

Our performance of career positions helps to create our identity and in turn it reflects our unique interests, abilities, and values. We cannot put on and take off career habits with the 9 o'clock bell or the 5 o'clock whistle. Our speech, our ideas, our acquaintances, our very lifestyle signal our career. The very selection of an occupation has long been characterized as implementing a self-concept (Super, 1953), and several researchers have shown that professional aspirants characterize themselves more like the stereotype of their own profession than other professions (Bingham, 1966; Healy, 1967). Some people regard occupational membership as a means of creating a desirable self, for they prefer occupations in which the workers are more like their ideal person than occupations in which the workers are not as similar to thier ideal person (Healy, 1973; Wheeler & Carnes, 1973).

"What kind of work do you do?" is one of the first things asked in getting acquainted. The answer gives us strong clues about the past experiences of our new acquaintance; it indicates what he or she is doing at the moment; and it hints at his or her aspirations. Even more, the answer suggests the person's interests, abilities, values, and status in the community. Certainly, no other single datum provides us with as much information and basis for speculation.

Career Involvement Affects and Is Affected by Life Satisfaction

Part of the career self-concept concerns the person's beliefs about career success. A society offers general guidelines about work success, and theoretically its rewards (prestige and money) are distributed to reward success. However, a person's interpretation of what constitutes career success is mediated by his immediate groups' views and by his experience relative to career. As a consequence, people of different sexes and from different social and ethnic groups often define career success differently.

The person's concept of success and his ensuing estimate of his own is very important because it influences his career satisfaction, and that satisfaction in turn influences his esteem and his willingness to commit himself to career. Table 3 presents seven propositions regarding the interrelation of self-esteem, career satisfaction, and career commitment formulated by Hall (1975) to represent how these attributes interact.

Insert Table 3 about here

These propositions tend to be supported by the ongoing research of Korman on self-esteem (Korman, 1971). The propositions suggest that people who have minimal career success will not invest effort in locating a career position congruent with their capacities and goals nor exert themselves in seeking and pursuing challenging career goals. To the extent, therefore, that a person believes schooling and working are connected, as they increasingly are in our society, it is imperative that he experience successful schooling if we want him to exert himself in order to have a successful career. Clearly, this supports providing alternative forms of education as early as possible to assure more possibilities for successful school experiences.

Career and Life Satisfaction

Career satisfaction is inextricably related to life satisfaction. Logically, a person satisfied with living will approach work more positively, and a person satisfied with work should feel more positive toward other life roles. Since career has been as important an aspect of life as being a son or daughter, a neighbor, friend, spouse, parent, or citizen, its privileges must be continuously balanced with the other privileges and responsibilities of life. Overemphasizing or neglecting career leads to frustration and unhappiness as surely as misbalancing other facets of our personhood.

The changing quality of career and the need to accommodate it over the lifetime has led career scholars such as Super (1975) and Ginzberg (1972) to speculate that the appropriate life objective with regard to career is a balance of career with other life roles. Such a balance entails both a compatibility of career demands and rewards with the person's abilities and values and a proportional distribution of available time and energy among the varying roles.

In a dynamic world, such a balance will be neither static nor tranquil. Changes in our work-educational system, ongoing maturation, experience, and alterations in our immediate lifespace will lead to performing and defining the career role differently over time. Fortunately, society has recognized this dynamism by providing schools and training programs to foster growth in specific occupational and general career skills and increasingly by encouraging people to avail themselves of such training throughout adulthood. Recently, as occupations have become more specialized and volatile as a consequence of technological advances, society has endorsed downward vertical and expanded horizontal mobility across occupations, assuming that such mobility increases productivity by distributing workers to areas of need and by providing workers with new challenges and opportunity for expression. Nevertheless, career and personal opportunities and frustrations will repeatedly disturb the balance and challenge the careerist to re-establish it. Over the course of a career, therefore, the succeeding careerist can expect to feel alternately satisfied and dissatisfied with the balance, and both apprehensive and optimistic about new directions. The successful worker, therefore, will recognize the inherent fluctuations in a career but will nevertheless enjoy the challenge of moving his/her career forward, persevering and producing under varying degrees of stress. The satisfied careerist should not expect a personal Shangri-La; rather he or she will understand and will accept that life's relationship to work provides uncertain challenges. Over time these can be mastered sufficiently to provide some sense of accomplishment and to permit attention to the other tasks of life.

The fulfilled worker is not necessarily the most successful person in his occupation or school class (Bray et al., 1974, 1978; Sears, 1977). Achieving balance among life roles may preclude the intense commitment of energy that reaching the very top in competitive occupations and school requires. However, the successful, satisfied careerist should distinguish himself from the apparently successful by his enjoyment of greater mental and physical health.

In spite of the demands of a career, workers should not despair. Over the last 20 years, Gallup polls (1974) have found 80% or more of American workers report satisfaction with their jobs, indicating that at least some aspects of working are satisfying. Moreover, national policy is committed to equipping citizens for satisfying, productive work and to encouraging development of job opportunities. Large-scale programs have been enacted to provide special help for veterans, the handicapped, and impoverished mothers in preparing for work and in securing suitable work.

Conceptually, career satisfaction subsumes satisfaction with current job and occupation, current prospects and aspirations, and past achievements. How these combine into one feeling will vary over individuals and over time. One task of counselors may be to help people recognize that viewing career as a passage enables them to stabilize their feelings about their work.

Although career satisfaction is by definition a feeling, a subjective evaluation of the satisfactoriness of personal expenditures in relation to return, people as members of the same species can be expected to apply similar criteria in weighing satisfaction. Consequently, it is not surprising that surveys of workers in many occupations regularly indicate that work satisfaction is due to challenge arising from using one's ability, absence of routine, autonomy, decent pay, and suitable supervision. Surveys also show, however, that some workers in occupations with many satisfiers are not as satisfied as workers in occupations with fewer satisfiers, suggesting that satisfaction is not simply a function of the number of satisfiers. For, clearly, satisfaction also depends upon how one interprets his return from work. For example, a person earning $150 a week for secretarial work who has learned the requisite skills as part of a high school program and who associates with other workers who earn comparable wages is likely to be more satisfied than a secretary with the same salary who invested two years in an AA degree to obtain the requisite skills and whose associates earn $200 a week. Similarly, if the $150 per week secretaries find that secretaries typically earn only $125 per week, their satisfaction is likely to increase if they feel their work is high quality, while it may decrease if they do not feel they are doing their job well.

The more than 20,000 different occupations and hundreds of different training programs in the United States offer many different kinds of career satisfaction. These range from opportunity for intellectual and aesthetic stimulation to opportunity to serve and interact with others and to opportunity to earn high income and enjoy prestige and comfortable surroundings. Of course no job or program offers every satisfaction, and there is keen competition for occupations with more satisfiers. Nearly 50% of graduating high school students, for example, aspire to be physicians and even by college graduation there are three or four times more aspirants for medical schools than there are positions. Yet, since every person will not seek the same satisfactions, there would appear to be many opportunities for obtaining at least some satisfaction from one's career. Certainly in helping people to chart their careers it is important to alert them to the existence of the many different satisfiers and to the facts that occupations differ in the satisfiers they offer and in the price they exact for pursuit of the work.

Clearly understanding the mechanisms underlying career satisfaction will assist us in understanding career and thus in directing it. However, a comprehensive explanation of career satisfaction which fits the findings of the thousands of work satisfaction studies has not yet been formulated. For promising formulations of career satisfaction theory and for helpful overviews of the current literature, the reader is referred to Davis and Lofquist (1968), Lawler (1973) and Crites (1969), and Dubin (1976).

Careers Manifest Mankind's Interdependence

The career sets parameters for human expression. Colleagues, occupational norms and ethics, and the expectation of the general public prescribe what is acceptable in particular career positions and sometimes even what is appropriate for the incumbents when they are acting outside their position. Occupancy of a particular career position entitles the incumbent to certain societal resources and prerogatives which otherwise are likely to be denied. On the other hand, those same positions demand 50 to 60 hours of an adult's 112 waking hours a week and 40 or more hours of a student's 112. After meals and hygience, consequently, people have little time for extra-career accomplishments. Unfortunately, it sometimes even seems as if our society's large allocation of time to work implicitly precludes other major achievements. This heavy commitment to work is part of 20th century living (Dubin, 1976), despite the fact that our folk wisdom argues convincingly for balance among life's undertakings.

Even while it proclaims our uniqueness, the career reflects our interdependence. The positions which comprise a career are influenced by others in the society who prescribe the nature of the duties and prerogatives. We depend upon others to equip us to perform career duties and to move from career position to position. Relationships such as student-teacher, apprentice-master, employee-employer, protegee-mentor, client-counselor reflect the ongoing interdependence of careers.

Present careers build upon past human development and influence future human potential. The accumulated wisdom and resources of our ancestors enable us to enjoy the career positions of our modern age, and our rendition of those positions will determine what our progeny can do. Careers are personal, yet their utilization of mankind's legacy necessitates that they be enacted responsibly, with attention to what they will do for others as well as how they will enhance the self. The O'Toole (1973) task force found that workers suffered if they did not believe their productions contributed to societal welfare and ecology. In an age of individualism and nationalism, we must be alert to our career legacy lest we overlook our connection and our obligations to other people and other societies as we puruse work. Clearly, only the recognition that a career taps mankind's common inheritance can alert us to the fact that workers will be at peace with themselves only when they are accountable for that common legacy. The widespread acclaim for President Kennedy's inaugural injunction, "Ask not what your country can do for you, but instead ask what you can do you your country!" should not be forgotten.

Without doubt, the recognition that careers draw upon our common human inheritance and that they develop people positively or negatively necessitates striving to afford every person an opportunity to have work which will be self-enhancing even as we enhance ourselves through work. Without such striving we will feel that we are somehow cheating. Not surprisingly, research suggests that workers who believe that they are overcompensated for their work become dissatisfied.

As a social necessity, careers are targets of socialization, which refers to the process by which people are taught by their society what is appropriate. The media, family, community, school, peer, church, and eventually, work groups socialize us. Well before we join a work group, these other groups have taught us an approach to living and working.

Socialization is both formal and informal, direct and indirect, but not necessarily a coordinated process, for it often gives different messages. A parent or preschool teacher may offer a 15-minute demonstration/lecture on table manners. Upon identifying a youngster performing incorrectly, either may give coaching. Often the teacher does not coordinate with the parent in order to be consistent with the family's etiquette; as a consequence, the teacher may omit the before/after grace and encourage the youngster to pass dishes, whereas the family insists on the prayers and waits for a parent to serve the meal.

Our multicultural and class society produces different approaches to living and to working, even while the pervasiveness of the media and our universal schooling create ever more similarities. As an example of a difference, consider how many lower-class persons expect daily or weekly pay in cash, whereas upper-middle-class persons are surprised with anything other than a bimonthly or monthly check; or recall how a Samoan will treat his work tools as community property, whereas an American will expect everyone to use his/her own tools.

As far as commonalities are concerned, there are many messages which clearly support the establishment, such as, "Work hard to learn and to produce, and you will earn and deserve material comfort." "Stay loose, roll with the punches, and you will succeed." Yet there are other messages, not as supportive of the Establishment, such as those which proclaim the "Do your own thing" philosophy and that only the presently visible and sensational are real and worthy of attention.

Needless to say, each person incorporates more or less the messages that pervade the general culture and especially his or her subculture. American workers, therefore, differ markedly from one another, but they will differ even more significantly, for example, from Russian or Japanese workers or from American workers of a different era.

"Work ethic" is the term which designates the set of beliefs about how and why to work and what to expect from working. Many observers have noted that the American work ethic is changing. That is to be expected since we are moving from an industrial to postindustrial era and since increased schooling and the pervasive influence of radio and television enables all of us to experience more socialization messages. Certainly the character of the new work ethic, whether it will include such precepts as: (a) participate in designing your own job and periodically negotiate output, (b) alternate from supervisor to supervisee or from teacher to learner, (c) substitute families to accommodate career (Tofler, 1970), will have profound effects on the kind of career which will develop in the 1980s and 1990s.

Career and the Layman

In closing our introduction of the concept of career, I believe it is prudent to remind the reader that many people will not regard career in the same way we do. The fact that there are several different definitions of career in Webster's *New World Dictionary* (College Edition) ranging from the career as "one's progress through life" to "one's advancement or achievement in a particular vocation" to "a life work, profession, occupation" attests to the variety of definitions. Similarly, review of scholars' definitions of career will show that there is even disagreement among them.

The disagreements underscore the fact that our view of career are theories, designed to economically communicate and explain facts. To the extent that career is an interpretation of facts, every person is entitled to hold the theory that is useful to him or her. However, operating with a career theory which excludes realities about a career is likely to decrease a person's ability to manage a career. As a consequence, the counselor who believes that the framework of career presented here fits reality will often want to expand the client's view to include those parts of our formulation which are not now a part of the client's theory.

On the other hand, a counselor will want to review a client's career theory carefully, for it may reveal aspects of the person's connection to work which are not dealt with by a broad theory, and it may even uncover facts about careers which have been omitted from our framework.

Although definitions differ, the layman has a strong interest in career. Witness the bestseller status of books like Working (Terkel, 1974), Passages (Sheehy, 1976), Managerial Woman (Henney, 1976), and the conversion of Working into a musical. Note the repeated call for more "career guidance" in surveys of parents and students (Prediger, North, & Roth, 1974; Taylor, 1972), and recall that nearly 20 million Americans are enrolled in education programs for career purposes. Clearly, many potential clients await help of competent counseling in pursuing their career.

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Table

A Career Development Glossary for Career Education

Time and Effort	
Work	The systematic pursuit of an objective valued by oneself (even if only for survival) and desired by others; directed and consecutive, it requires the expenditure of effort. It may be compensated (paid work) or uncompensated (volunteer work or an avocation). The objective may be intrinsic enjoyment of the work itself, the structure given to life by the work role, the economic support which work makes possible, or the type of leisure which it facilitates.
Labor	Productive work for survival or support, requiring physical or mental effort.
Employment	Time spent in paid work or in indirectly paid work such as homemaking.
Leisure	Time free of required paid or unpaid work, in rest, play, or avocations.
Play	Activity which is primarily recreational and relaxing; engaged in for its own sake; it may be unsystematic or systematic, without objective or with an objective which is of temporary and personal consequence; it may involve the expenditure of effort, but that effort is voluntary and easily avoided by the player.
Content	
Task	A performance required at work or in play.
Position	A group of tasks to be performed by one person; in industry, performed for pay. Positions exist whether vacant or occupied; they are task- and outcome, not person, defined.
Role	A set of behaviors associated with a position. The *role concepts* of persons occupying positions may be so called; those of persons surrounding the position *role expectations*.
Job	A group of similar, paid, positions requiring some similar attributes in a single organization. Jobs are task-, outcome-, and organization-centered.
Occupation	A group of similar jobs found in various organizations. Occupations are task-, economy-, and society-oriented.
Vocation	An occupation with commitment, distinguished primarily by its psychological as contrasted with its economic meaning; ego-involving, meaningful to the individual as an activity, not solely for its productive, distributive, or service outcome and its economic rewards, although these too are valued. Vocations are task-, outcome-, and person-centered.
Avocation	An activity pursued systematically and consecutively for its own sake with an objective other than monetary gain, although it may incidentally result in gain. Avocations are task-, outcome-, and person-centered.
Career	The sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his preoccupational, occupational, and postoccupational life; includes work-related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner, together with complementary avocational, familial, and civic roles. Careers exist only as people pursue them; they are person-centered.
Structure	
Organization	A specific institution, company, or other independent or autonomous entity producing or distributing goods or services.
Industry	A branch of an art or trade which employs people to produce or distribute goods or to provide services; a group of similar organizations.

Table 2

Super's Career Development Stages
and Selected General Tasks

Stage	Age	Task
Growth	0-14	- Try multiple experiences - Form self-concept - Develop an understanding of the meaning and purpose of work
Exploration	14-24	- Recognize and accept need to make career decisions and obtain relevant information - Become aware of interests and abilities and how they relate to work opportunities - Identify possible fields and levels of work consistent with these abilities and interests - Secure training to develop skills and advance occupational entry and/or enter occupations fulfilling interests and abilities
Establishment	25-45	- Achieve full competence in occupation through experience/training - Consolidate and improve status in the occupation - Advance vertically or horizontally
Maintenance	46-65	- Preserve skills through inservice/continual training - Develop retirement resources/plans
Decline	65+	- Adapt work to physical capacity - Manage resources to sustain independence

TABLE 3

THE INTERRELATION OF SELF-ESTEEM, CAREER SATISFACTION, AND CAREER COMMITMENT

By Douglas T. Hall (1975)

Proposition I: In an attempt to experience psychological success in the career, the person will tend to select career roles congruent with present or potential subidentities which are (a) potentially or presently competent, and (b) highly valued.

Proposition II: The higher the individual's level of self-esteem, the more extensive his search will be for information about (1) available career roles, and (2) the value he attaches to the relevant subidentities, and (3) his present or potential competence in these areas.

Proposition III: The more the individual searches for information about available career roles, personal values, and competencies, the more aware he is likely to be of these entities.

Proposition IV: The more aware the person is of his subidentities and available career roles, the closer the match will be between the selected career subidentity and role.

Proposition V: (Derived from II–IV) The higher the individual's level of self-esteem, the closer the congruence will be between the selected career subidentity and career role.

Proposition VI: The higher the individual's self-esteem, the greater the likelihood that he would risk committing himself to a career role providing challenge to a highly valued subidentity.

Proposition VII: The higher the individual's self-esteem, the higher will be the difficulty level at which the role–subidentity match occurs.

A FRAMEWORK FOR CAREER COUNSELING

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

Although career counseling seems to have been somewhat neglected during the past couple of decades, at least by many counseling psychologists, there are good reasons why counselors and educators generally should re-examine and restructure the activities that are commonly referred to as career guidance. (1) The counselor who helps an individual make sound occupational choices contributes to that individual's personal development and sense of fulfillment. For as studies by Flanagan (1975) and others have shown, an individual's work is a major contributor to his or her quality of life, at least among the overwhelming majority of Americans, ranking only slightly below health and interpersonal relations in importance. (2) The welfare of our country (any country) depends upon the continued existence of a substantial population of intelligent and willing workers who are properly matched to their jobs. (In these times being "matched to a job" does not necessarily mean willingness to perform mechanically a predetermined sequence of assembly line operations. It may include participating at times in management decisions about how the job is best to be accomplished.) Career counseling provides an opportunity to make a contribution to the larger community as well as to individual clients.
(3) Career counseling is a complex and interesting field which presents a variety of problems. Furthermore, there is the likelihood that it will continue to present job opportunities for well-trained persons.

The task of finding oneself a satisfactory occupation is becoming increasingly complex, in part because of the increasing number and variety of occupations in our society, and in part because more and more people will find it necessary to learn several different occupations during their lifetime. It is predictable the foreseeable changes in our society that will be brought about just by the energy shortage will require ever greater adaptability on the part of those who must work for a living--and that of course includes most of us. There will be a continuing demand for the kind of services that I am including under the rubric of career guidance, whether or not those services are provided by people who call themselves counselors, or by someone else.

It should be recognized, however, that the concept of career guidance held, say, in 1940, before Carl Rogers and his followers so drastically changed the counseling professions, will not do for 1980. That is not to say that the things that were learned by such professionals as E. G. Williamson at the University of Minnesota and Donald E. Super and Ruth Strang (   ) at Columbia University, and others, should be forgotten or ignored. (Unfortunately much of it appears to have been ignored during the last couple of decades.) It is to say that several important developments of the last half century need to be taken into account in developing an up-to-date career guidance system. (1) Some of the most important developments have occurred in psychology, with the emergency of cognitive theory (references). Our concepts of human motivation and human abilities are somewhat more refined and useful than in 1940. (2) Some of the developments and changes are in technology. The invention of the digital computer has implications for counseling as well as for other activities in our society. (3) Some of the developments are in the society itself, and in the nature of work. The role of the unskilled worker has greatly diminished, and as Peter Drucker (1946) pointed out some decades ago, the most basic job skills are now intellectual and social in nature.

One of the major implications of these changes, as Healy (1979) has argued, is that career counseling should no longer be regarded as the kind of operation that is conducted by an individual counselor working with a client in a one-to-one relationship. What is needed instead is a counseling team, or "task force" comprised of educators and members of other selected social agencies, who will work cooperatively with counselors to perform the functions that comprise career guidance.

Before discussing the team concept, however, this paper will outline briefly the functions that need to be performed at some point in career counseling, whether counseling is done by a team or by an individual. This explication will, it is hoped, help to make the point that career guidance is more likely to be effective if done systematically by a team than if done by the same individuals working independently of one another.

The Functions Which Comprise a Career Guidance System

1. Policy making. Any educational program exists in order to carry out a policy. The policy may be explicit (written down some place) or it may be implicit, but no set of educational operations is an end in itself. Career counseling programs are intended to help individuals and the

community as a whole. They may, for example, be intended to reduce the ratio of blacks to whites among unemployed people. They may be designed to help college graduates find "fulfilling" careers, etc.

The policies which an educational program is expected to follow are usually determined or at any rate approved by a governing or advisory board which represents the public's interest in determining the overall goals or purposes of an agency, and in seeing that those purposes are realized.

2. Determining specific program goals. A general goal, such as "reducing the ratio of blacks to whites among the unemployed people of a community" may prove to be beyond the capability of any single agency by itself. However, a careful analysis of what is required to achieve such a major objective may suggest a number of valid sub-goals that are within the capability of the agency. If an increasing number of jobs in Western societies require applicants to have graduated from high school, for example, then an important objective of a career guidance program designed to help achieve equality in employment opportunities might be to increase the proportion of black students graduating from the high schools of a given community. And if graduation from high school requires certain minimal language skills, then one of the goals of that career guidance program might be to see that students are trained in those skills.

The specific goals of a career guidance program need to be explicit (written) and measurable--i.e., stated in such a way that it will be possible to determine whether or to what degree they are being achieved.

3. Assembling and maintaining a task force. Although they are a very important part of any guidance program, counselors by themselves are not able to do all or even most of the things that need to be done to make a career guidance program successful. Career counselors need the cooperation and help of other people in the school and community, including school administrators to find funding, space, clerical staff, etc.; teachers to provide information about students, to teach remedial courses, etc.; placement officers to help find jobs; etc. The members of the team or task force must be identified, their cooperation must be secured, their duties defined. They must from time to time receive recognition or other rewards for their efforts.

The task force will need a designated leader to coordinate efforts, resolve differences, call meetings when needed, assign particular tasks, etc.

4. Establishing and maintaining an accurate data base, including a problems census. Members of a task force, including career counselors will start with some knowledge or at any rate impressions about the special needs of students in a school, but as a rule that information will be neither complete nor quantifiable. In order to be able to (a) accurately assess the special needs of the students, (b) assign priorities and allocate resources, (c) decide what special interventions, or programs, or "treatments" are needed, (d) evaluate the effectiveness of career guidance operations, and (e) identify problem areas where more information is needed, there needs to be a set of procedures for acquiring "baseline" data. Those

procedures should be so designed that they will accurately and inexpensively survey the kind and frequency of student problems which interfere with school progress, including progress in acquiring the knowledge and skills needed for a career.

Some of these procedures already exist, of course, in the schools, although full use is not always made of the information they generate. A useful example at the community college level is provided by Hunter and Sheldon (1979). An additional and more limited technique which might be used to supplement the kind of thing that Hunter and Sheldon are doing has been tried out in Glendora (Sorenson, 1973), Antelope Valley (the Kukics, 1974), George Washington High School in Los Angeles (Vivell, 1976) and in several schools in Iran (Zamini, Sorenson, 1977). It consists of a checklist for teachers which enables an individual teacher quickly and easily to indicate which of the students in their classes appear not to be making normal progress, and the suspected reasons, e.g., lack of basic skills, failure regularly to do homework, frequent absences, etc. This procedure provides information needed to identify the students who are perceived by their teachers as in need of help. It suggests something about the kind of help they need. If gathered periodically it reflects changes over time in the proportions of students with a particular kind of problem, and thus becomes useful in evaluating interventions.

5. Appraising the causes of a student's difficulties. It is one thing to know that a student lacks basic skills, or doesn't do homework, or is frequently absent, and another to know why. His parents may not speak English, or they may not help him with homework, or he may spend

too much time watching TV, or he may have missed some of his basic instruction, or he may learn more slowly than most students, or he may be on drugs. Once a student has been identified as "having a problem" there needs to be someone with the resources and time required to learn the causes of that problem.

6. Prescribing interventions, individual and group. When it has been determined that a student "has a problem," i.e., is judged by his teachers or parents or himself as not making reasonable progress in school, and something is known about the causes of his difficulties, an "intervention" (actions by a teacher, parent, counselor, or other person) is needed to reduce and correct those causes. Depending on the nature of the causes the intervention may take the form of one or more conversations with the parents to elicit their cooperation in monitoring TV watching, or helping with homework; a course in remedial arithmetic; tutoring; one or more counseling interviews; a part-time job; etc.

For purposes of efficiency, and to permit meaningful evaluation, it is important that the prescribed interventions be (a) repeatable, and (b) specific to particular categories of problems.

7. Developing and applying special instructional and counseling procedures. It is neither necessary nor efficient to deal with every student individually. For one thing, students are not that unique. The students who lack adequate language skills, for example, need a different kind of help than those who lack, say, time management skills, and can probably be divided into a few sub-sets, each sub-set with its own group treatment. For example, the students whose parents speak Spanish but not English might be dealt with as a group.

Furthermore, it may be true that most kinds of counseling can be conducted more effectively on a group basis (Bates, 1971) because students in a properly structured group can provide one another with feedback, encouragement and reassurance, and an opportunity to practice the skills they are learning.

8. Providing accurate and up-to-date occupational information. One of the many functions of career guidance is to provide the students with information that is needed to make career decisions--information about himself or herself, aptitudes, interests, etc.; and information about the world of work, about the nature of particular occupations, about job trends, job opportunities, required skills, etc. Some of the needed information about the world of work can be obtained vicariously by reading, provided that such information exists and is accessible. Obviously there needs to be an up-to-date, well-indexed collection of such information--i.e., a library, housed at a location reasonably convenient to the students. There needs to be someone to keep the collection up to date, help students use it, etc.

9. Providing opportunities for work experience. Not all of the occupational information that a student needs to make reasonable career plans can be obtained vicariously. Students also need "hands on experience" at a variety of kinds of work, not only to learn what it means to work and to acquire reasonable expectations about work and what it will provide them, but to learn more about their own interests and inclinations.

In the past students have obtained this kind of information through summer jobs, part-time work, and work experience programs while in school.

No doubt they have acquired much of it in entry-level occupations after leaving school, moving from one kind of work to another until they acquired minimal skills in an occupation that was acceptable to them.

It is extremely difficult for many parents who live in an urban society, in contrast with, say, farm families, to provide the needed work experiences. A well-planned and properly supervised work-study program--one that enables students to learn essential information and not merely earn a minimal wage by performing routine operations, is an essential part of a career guidance program.

10. **Maintaining** an information network. Not all of the information and experiences which students need in career planning can be provided by the school, and indeed a number of different agencies, national, state, and local are engaged in activities that are potentially beneficial to persons who need career guidance. Each career counselor should establish a network of relationships with these agencies that will enable the counselor to keep up to date on current job opportunities, special training programs, programs for the handicapped, etc., and to help his/her clients take advantage of available opportunities.

11. Generating new information needed in career counseling. It is widely recognized that counseling is mainly a prescientific art in the sense that most of our counseling lore has developed out of counseling practice, is not based on scientific theory, and contains many important gaps. The research designs and procedures which academic and applied counselors use in producing articles publishable in professional journals have not proved to be especially useful in generating the kind of information needed to fill those gaps.

There is no good reason why a task force taking the systematic approach to career education described here cannot generate and share with other task forces some of the knowledge needed to improve career counseling procedures. If as we gather information about the problems of students, the apparent causes of their problems, and the effects of our interventions, we give some care to the tasks of making our hunches and hypotheses explicit, and checking them against our data, we will be able to correct and refine both our data base and our procedures (Bates, 1971; Adler, 1979; Phelp, 1979; Wilkinson, 1978).

12. Inservice training for the implementation of improved procedures. Although Americans have spent a good deal of money in recent years for educational research and development and useful procedures for improving schooling have been invented, teachers, counselors, and administrators have been slow to make use of those new procedures. The reasons why school people generally tend to make relatively little use of innovations are multiple, but one of the most common reasons is that they haven't heard about or don't understand how to apply particular innovations in their own work. A good deal is now known about the implementation of innovation (Orlich, 1979) and that information needs to be applied in a program of regular inservice training.

13. Program evaluation. Evaluation, as the term is used here, refers to the gathering and analyzing of the information needed to find out which of our procedures are effective in contributing to positive changes in students and which are not. There are two reasons for giving attention to evaluation. One is to gather the information needed to

convince the supporters of a program that is worth its salt. The other is to obtain information needed to make improvements in the program--to make it more effective. While there are some technical problems in evaluation--I will mention three--most educators with a reasonable amount of effort and assistance can learn to deal with them. In other words, I am recommending that the evaluation task be taken on by the members of the task force, and not left to "external" evaluators. (a) The first evaluation task, already referred to in the comments about the rationale, is to conceptualize the program objectives in such a way that they can be measured. The place to begin here is with the values question, namely, "What changes do we want our career guidance program to effect in our students?" The second step is to answer the question "How can those desired changes be accurately observed?" (b) The second evaluation task is to select or invent replicable methods calculated to bring about the wanted changes. It is important here to avoid selecting treatments merely because they are popular, or because they are novel, or described in trendy jargon and which are untested. (c) The third and in some ways the most difficult task is to show that any positive changes that do occur in students are as a result of the intervention(s) and not such extraneous factors as "maturation," the influence of family or friends, etc. Here the career counselor can do with some technical help, but an important beginning can be made if the task force, having identified students with a common problem, will subject some of those students to a treatment, ignoring the others, and then retesting both treated and untreated students at a later date.

It should be noted that although the program evaluation component has been listed last, people who are developing career guidance programs should be thinking about and planning for evaluation from the very beginning of their efforts.

CAREER GUIDANCE PROGRAM

STUDENT GOALS	(Examples are: By graduation every student will (1) have secured a suitable job or training position, and (2) have indicated five occupations she might enter which are commensurate with existing skills and five she might enter after securing training which persons of her academic potential and inventoried interests can be expected to complete. One year before graduating, each student will secure satisfactory ratings from at least 80% of instructors on habits such as: punctuality, cooperativeness, perseverance and communication, and have presented to an educator a plan for concrete career accomplishments within the next year.) Relation of Student Goals to Institutions Overall Policy (Tell how the goals fit the overall institutions policy.)
PROCEDURE FOR IDENTIFYING STUDENTS IN NEED OF SERVICE	(Examples are: annual review of career progress with counselor, teacher-adviser, peer counselor or community volunteer, annual career inventory, self referral sparked by class orientation or career day, schools newspaper invitation, teacher referral.)
PROCEDURE FOR SECURING STUDENT COMMITMENT TO TREATMENT	(Someone needs to review available services, secure agreement to use pertinent one(s), and establish time for jointly reviewing progress.)
CAREER DEVELOPMENT SERVICES	(Typical ones are: career center, career guidance or planning class, advising/counseling, interest/aptitude testing, career development infusion, field trips, work experience, job development, etc.)
PERSONNEL AND THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES	(Possible ones are: Task force leader coordinates component services and liaisons with top administration; task force academic chairperson recruits/inservices volunteer teacher in infusion, task force counselor trains/supervises peer-community volunteer counselors.)
RESOURCES	(Some essentials are: space, materials, clerical assistance, staff time, etc.)
EVALUATION	(This is the method by which each service's contribution to a student's career growth is monitored. Many use teacher or student ratings or work samples like completed plans or simulations. If possible include warnings about students encountering frustration in order that they may be assisted before they quit.)

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING A CAREER GUIDANCE PLAN

I. INGREDIENTS

A. A plan should include the following information:

1. needs of target populations
2. job market, job opportunities, job requirements, long range job trends
3. facility and equipment needs
4. personnel and operating costs
5. procedures to inform public
6. recruitment of students
7. development of resources and staff competency
8. evaluation system

II. PROCESS

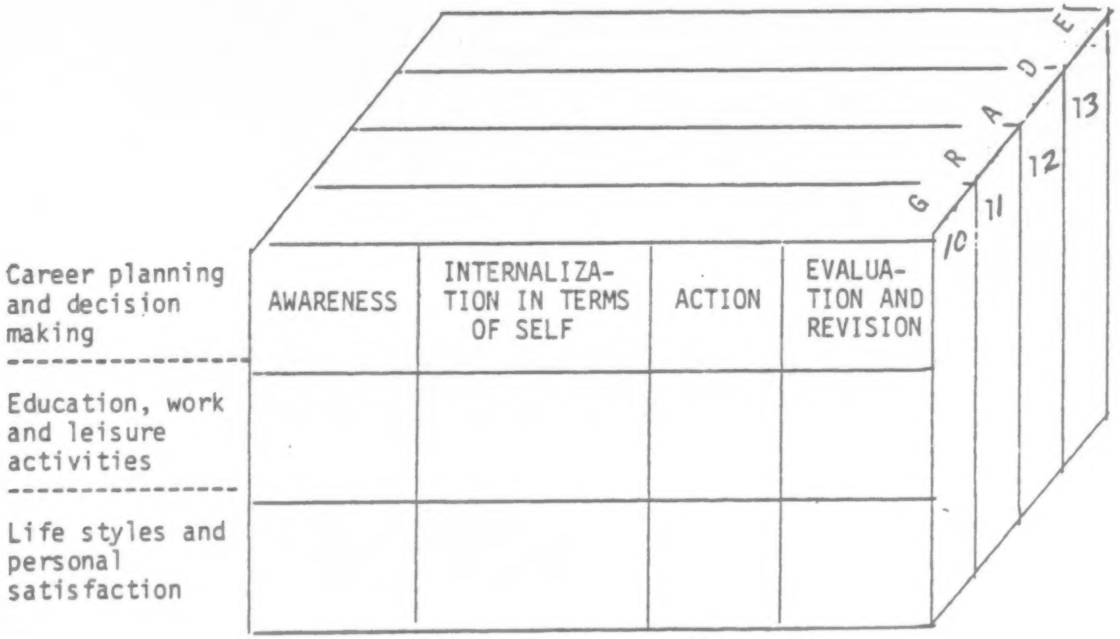
A. General strategies in developing a plan:

1. Appoint parent and business "advisory panels"
2. Appoint student and teacher "review panels"
3. Submit each stage of plan to panels
4. Modify plan according to panel reactions
5. Complete revision of each stage before moving on

B. Specific steps to follow:

1. Adopt a basic model
2. Assess needs of population
3. Develop goals based on needs
4. Develop objectives indicating how goals will be achieved
5. Assess current program to see if objectives are already being met
6. Determine school's resources
7. Develop strategies to achieve objectives
8. Develop criterion measures for each objective
9. Assess staff competencies
10. Define budget

III. BASIC MODEL


GRADE
10
11
12
13
AWARENESS
INTERNALIZATION IN TERMS OF SELF
ACTION
EVALUATION AND REVISION
Career planning and decision making
Education, work and leisure activities
Life styles and personal satisfaction

CAREER GUIDANCE COMPONENTS

GOALS

STUDENT NEEDS

STUDENT COMMITMENT

SERVICES

PERSONNEL

RESOURCES

EVALUATION

Figure 1

CAREER DEVELOPMENT TASKS OF ADOLESCENTS

The tasks are defined for the areas of knowledge, information seeking, planning, attitudes, and skills.

Knowledge

1. Knows the high school programs which are available.
2. Knows the salaries in occupation of interest.
3. Knows the supply/demand situation for occupations of interest.
4. Knows the costs in time and money of training programs for occupations of interest.
5. Knows how far in school people with similar test scores and grades usually go.
6. Knows the job satisfactions of workers in occupations of interest.
7. Knows about the available college, junior college, and technical school program.
8. Knows how people advance in occupations of interest.
9. Knows the principal duties of the occupations of interest to him/her.
10. Knows the education and experience requirements of occupations of interest.
11. Knows which occupations use the abilities which he or she has.
12. Knows the occupations which satisfy his or her values.
13. Knows the subjects that are required for his or her high school program.
14. Knows the personal characteristics which are important in career planning.
15. Knows the progress he or she is making in his or her career development.
16. Has an accurate understanding of own interests and abilities.
17. Knows how to obtain a job in the occupations of interest.
18. Knows how to locate local job openings.

Information Seeking

1. Reads books and pamphlets to find out about occupations.
2. Reads catalogues from colleges, business schools or other vocational schools to learn about them.
3. Discusses career choices with either parents, teachers, or counselors.
4. Discusses financing post-high-school training with either parents, teachers, or counselors.
5. Talks to people in those post-high-school training or work programs of interest about their experiences.
6. Takes particular course or work study or volunteer/paid jobs in order to find out own ability and interest.

Attitudes

1. Believes he/she must make his/her own decisions, but can get advice.
2. Believes in systematic approach to planning and problem solving.
3. Accepts responsibility for obtaining information about career.
4. Believes in trying out various activities to learn abilities and interests.
5. Believes in discussing plans with adults but retaining responsibility for making them.
6. Believes that solving school and work problems is his or her responsibility, although he or she may seek advice.

Planning and Decision-Making

(Sound reasoning assumed for all)

1. Has considered several different occupational alternatives and chosen one.
2. Has decided how many more years of schooling to complete.
3. Has decided what to do after high school graduation.
4. Has chosen courses that will clarify his or her interests and abilities.
5. Has decided whether to work in the community or to work outside of it.
6. Has considered the advantages of different life styles and has chosen one.

Career Skills

1. Can utilize informational resources such as the Occupational Outlook Handbook.
2. Can determine appropriateness of information resource for particular information needs.
3. Can describe a decision making process.
4. Can progress in academic and non-academic skill acquisition.
5. Can use self-instructional materials and heuristics in improving skills.
6. Can manage time effectively.
7. Can comment upon validity of data about himself in terms of validity across situations.
8. Can demonstrate effective work habits: punctuality, cooperativeness, etc.

Module 2

PLANNING

An emphasis on planning to overhaul existing and possibly underdeveloped career counseling services demands some attention to the planning processes. This section presents a few basic planning propositions, and examines the planning process within its most contemporary framework. It includes a look at a practical tool, referred to as M & O Planning, which means management and operations planning. And it concludes with a description of an ideal system for delivering career counseling services. Planners might incorporate parts of the system into their local situation.

Basic Planning Propositions

The first proposition will not sound new to anyone. It's reached the status of the time-honored cliché.

1. It's almost always preferable to plan with those whom the plans will affect, and not for them.

If the Task Force does not represent the groups its plans are intended to affect, the representation should be broadened to include those groups. If not, the groups are much less likely to feel ownership of the plans, and therefore to take responsibility for implementing them. Overwhelming evidence supports the proposition. So does the common experience.

Adequate representation does not mean all groups must be represented directly during the planning process. Indirect representation is perfectly all right, particularly when the direct representation of several groups would include too many people and render the planning activities unwieldly or unfocused. The involvement can occur through consultation and feedback This implies that members of the planning team (Task Force) will inform all interested parties continually as to planning progress and consult their views as to goals, staffing, programming, and evaluation. To the extent feasible, plans should reflect all interested points of view, and planners should point to the planning provisions which reflect the various groups' input.

Accordingly, an early planning task is to identify all groups and publics which will be impacted by the plans and to recruit their representation, whether that becomes direct or indirect. The planning team operates best when composed of six to eight members, and these people should represent the groups most essentially or directly impacted by the plans' implementation.

A mistake typically tolerated by planning groups such as Career Counseling Task Forces, where a high-level administrator takes part, is reliance on administrative power to mandate implementation of the desired functional changes. The tactic rarely succeeds. The impacted groups resent (a) the lack of representation and (b) the dictates of the planners. Where ownership is not felt, plans are not implemented effectively. The enforcement powers of the public sector remain extremely limited, and are practically nonexistent as far as mandating the implementation of plans developed by unrepresentative planning groups.

Along this line, the administrative representation of the planning team is critical to providing support for interested, motivated groups which wish to accomplish important goals, but not to provide for enforcement.

2. Planning for results is the first and most important step in the planning process.

Programs are likely to be most effective and efficient, and least costly, when targeted towards clearly anticipated results. In consequence, planners should specify the intended outcomes of the programs they develop. The outcome statements should be relatively concrete and relatively specific. The specificity and concreteness are meant to increase the likelihood the outcome statements will be interpreted in a similar manner by most users.

Lately, outcome statements have been stated in terms of client performance, that is, by defining what the beneficiaries of a program will be able to do, or what they will believe, or how their behavior will change, as a result of participating in the program.

Comprehensive career counseling will contribute to three kinds of change: student effects, helper effects, and system effects. One way to proceed is to become clear about how students should benefit from career counseling. These student effects should indicate how helpers (counselors, teachers, coordinators) might need to change, and the two in combination should clarify how the system (school or college) might need to change. Once the intended outcomes have been stated, program development (processes) can begin.

The critical mistake is a rush to program development before intended outcomes have become sufficiently clear and concrete. By far, the reason so many program development efforts finish without clout or relevance is their failure to communicate clearly enough about intended outcomes. When outcomes remain too broad or too abstract or too process-oriented (what program users will do), in practice many users interpret the outcome statements subjectively, and these interpretations differ from one another.

In practice, for example, students are expected to develop whatever career education skills or attitudes the program users transmit. Because the intended outcomes remain unclear to them, most program users continue to behave in accustomed ways, and the desired changes tend not to occur.

More importantly, when outcomes remain unclear or unfocused, the indicators of success become the correct answers or responses recorded by measuring devices designed to measure program effectiveness. The testers have interpreted the outcome statements to their satisfaction and have developed measures of their achievement, but this interpretation normally disagrees with the interpretations of program users, and no match between developers, users, and evaluators is normally struck.

Planning teams should try to avoid misinterpretations. These steps help:

a. Define a few important outcomes for the priority client group (in this case the students), but define them clearly and concretely, giving some attention to how the outcomes will be assessed and what the criteria of adequacy will be.

b. Discuss the implications of achieving the intended outcomes for program change, i.e., how program elements and users must change, and how the system must change, and reconcile any unmanageable differences identified by changing the intended outcomes or by changing the program elements.

c. Repeat the cycle of definition (outcomes vis-a-vis program change) until consensus is achieved regarding the appropriate outcomes and probable success.

d. Inform all interested parties as to intended outcomes and the practical effects of achieving the outcomes, especially as they impact each party.

3. Use a planning framework which guides the planning process to demonstrably effective programs.

The next section briefly describes a framework for program development. Referred to as the Is-Should Model, it derives from the assumption of a discrepancy between what exists (The Is) and what should exist (The Should). Once these conditions have been described, the resulting discrepancies are reduced by completing a problem-solving sequence involving steps that should be familiar to most practicing educators.

A component of the framework is evaluation, though a kind of evaluation not usually emphasized by program developers, and exceedingly more popular with them once the ideas and practices become sufficiently understood. Called formative evaluation, the concept and its accompanying technology are discussed later in this package. In brief, formative evaluation refers to the assessment of a program's goals and methods throughout the course of the program's development, in order to improve a program as it develops.

4. Operational plans should assign the responsibility for results to individuals, not to planning teams or to groups.

The notion of assigning individual responsibility for completing operations does not necessarily mean the individual must complete the operations, only that the person take responsibility for seeing that operations are carried out effectively.

5. In program planning efforts which are highly developmental, planning normally involves successive revisions and a timeline far longer than originally estimated.

The accommodation to revision is important. Nothing complicated or ambitious works very well the first time it is attempted. If Task Forces understand at the outset the need for revision of their plans they will not become so aggravated when operations go wrong or bog down. Planning is a preventive measure, but it's not fool-proof.

A typical mistake planners indulge in is speculating too much or too anxiously about the probable consequences of their first efforts. Some of this is fine. But speculation that attempts to anticipate basically unpredictable events paralyzes the development process, and prevents normal progress toward goals. Better to discuss probable consequences, take reasonable preventive measures, and proceed. Where events become problematic, make the reasonable changes.

6. If programs do not work as intended, the planning presumption holds that something is wrong with the program.

Lack of success presumes program fault and begs for revision. Program developers, managers, and users are hardly accustomed to admitting to mistakes of development or implementation. The conventional practice shifts responsibility to factors outside of the program, and including its clients. Program accountability demands that the planning process consider matters of program implementation and program effectiveness before certifying that a program is working or not working, and before assigning responsibility for the degrees of effectiveness or failure.

In this context it is not legitimate to assign responsibility for failure to a program's clients, or to its intended beneficiaries. The responsibility belongs to the program, and almost assuredly resides there. The task is to identify the requisite improvements, and to institute them. The alternative to altering the program is to end it.

A Framework for Planning

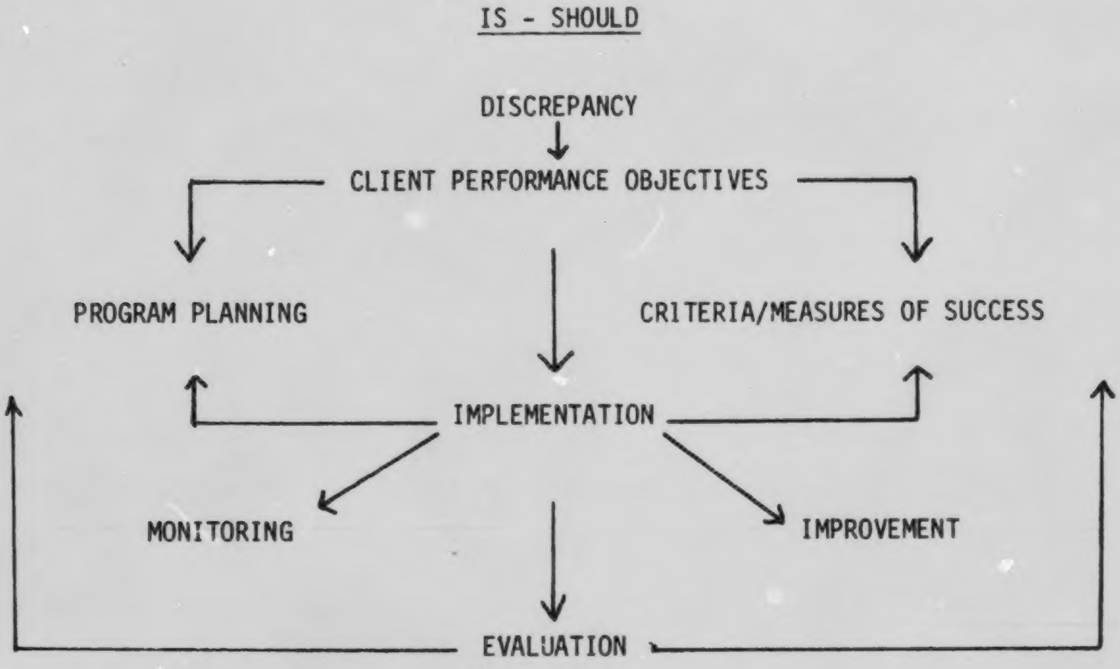
If planners who are members of career counseling Task Forces would ask three questions, the model below can guide the discussion and the planning process:

1. What should students know/do about career development?

2. What must program developers/users do to help students achieve career development goals?

3. How must the system change to facilitate what students should learn and counselors/teachers should do in relation to career development?

The planning process should travel over this ground:


IS - SHOULD
DISCREPANCY
CLIENT PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES
PROGRAM PLANNING
CRITERIA/MEASURES OF SUCCESS
IMPLEMENTATION
MONITORING
IMPROVEMENT
EVALUATION

The Task Forces can relate these planning issues to the priorities and constraints they face in the local school or college. Usually the top two steps are completed in the abstract, and then the comprehensive program planning step brings everything back to reality. Are the needs manageable, given existing resources? Can the intended outcomes be accomplished, given the existing program priorities and resources? If not, what needs to be changed: the objectives, or the existing programs?

Although all steps of the planning process are important, in practice planning teams spend most time and effort with the program planning step. These procedures come to education from the industrial sector, which refers to them as systems analysis.

Planners should set themselves straight on this matter of program planning. The step cannot be completed effectively without field work.

Task Forces cannot sit around a table once each week or month and hope to plan a program which fits into the system comfortable or effeciently (cost effective). To do so invites defeat or disappointment.

Systems analysis requires an analysis of the component parts of a system and how these interact with one another. When this is understood, alternative program plans can be elaborated and judged on criteria of cost, flexibility, potential fit, acceptance, degree of conflict, or other criteria of importance to the planners.

If counseling will not consult with teachers, if teachers will not practice infusion, if administrators will not support extensive career development efforts, these conditions become components of the system that must be integrated into the planning process. The best plan on paper might not make the slightest dent in operations if the program planning step does not include an analysis of the implementation process. Related to this, implementation should be planned so that evidence can be obtained rather consistently regarding (a) success of intended implementation, (b) progress toward goals, and (c) improvements in the program. This necessitates measuring devices, data collection procedures, observation schedules, and personnel to complete the tasks. (Other issues related to the components of planning framework are discussed at other points in the binder.)

Management and Operations Planning

However useful the field work related to it, the planning process results in plans that are highly conceptual. Plans are abstractions. They become real when applied to real situations. At that point, plans almost never work as intended. The error factor is far from zero. To reduce it in that direction, Task Forces can engage in a nitty-gritty planning process referred to as M & O Planning, or Management and Operations Planning.

The notions are simple. A management step is defined in terms of task completion, and the requisite operations (activities) are specified in the order in which they must occur to permit normal progress towards completion of the task. A timeline is developed. And responsibility for managing the completion of the management step, and thus the associated operations, is assigned to a member of the planning team.

Schematically, M & O Planning looks like this:

M & O Planning

(Steps are numbered in order of priority or precedence.)

Management step: 100

Operations: 010-090

	What	Who	How	When
010				
020				
030				
090				

To define the terms:

What refers to the sequence of actions or operations which must be completed in order to complete the management step.

Who refers to the individual who is responsible either for completing the operations or for managing the activities needed to complete the management step or operations.

How refers to the relatively specific activities which must be carried out to complete the operations.

When refers to the date by which each operation should be completed so that subsequent operations can be carried out.

The important element to specify is Who, the person responsible. If many steps and operations must be completed, the Task Force might recruit nonmembers to take operational responsibility.

Without question, the greatest difficulty in using M & O Planning procedures involves the time line. Planners can be guided by the well-documented assertion that in any institutional change process the timeline for change is almost invariably an underestimate. Task Forces invite problems if they establish unrealistic time lines, particularly if one operation is truly prerequisite to a subsequent one.

One way to facilitate the development of a useful timeline is to postpone its definition until all relevant management steps and operations have been identified.

M & O Plans can be outlined as above, or merely written in list form on looseleaf. Whichever is chosen, it's useful to the Task Force to have plans typed and reproduced and distributed to members and to nonmembers (their representatives) that will be impacted.

An Ideal System of Career Counseling

One way to plan for the development of career counseling systems is to examine alternative models, either operational or conceptual. Two or three operating models will be discussed during the workshop. Planners might incorporate parts of them that fit their local priorities and constraints.

Below is a conceptual model. An an ideal system, it has twelve interconnected parts. Few schools could operate this comprehensive a system. But many might use parts that fit their local situation.

These 12 parts constitute an ideal comprehensive career counseling system:

1. A rationale, or basic policy document.

This might include a statement of goals and objectives, reasons the goals are important, the kinds of students to be helped, the changes to be brought about in each category of students to be helped, and the kinds of information that would be accepted as evidence that the desired changes had occurred.

It might also include a job description for each employee in the system.

2. A career counseling task force.

3. A needs assessment procedure.

4. A survey of resources.

This extends to the local community, not just to the operations within the school.

5. A "Career" information network.

This might entail (a) counselors, (b) teachers, (c) remedial teachers, (d) school administrators, (e) continuation schools, (f) parents and other relatives, (g) occupational schools, (h) placement agencies, (i) work-study program, (j) welfare agencies . . .

6. Client (student) appraisal procedures.

Group and individual appraisal procedures would likely identify career development needs characteristic of the regular student body, plus those of "target populations," e.g. unemployed adolescents seeking entry-level jobs. The appraisal of the special target populations would take into account individual differences which presumably can be related to differential interventions, or "treatment" processes.

7. Counseling procedures.

These would be group and individualized activities, and related to the student problems and needs identified during appraisal.

8. Instructional services and special training programs.

9. An occupational library of information.

10. A records system.

This would record the history of client groups and individuals in terms of (a) needs assessment data, (b) survey of resources, (c) individual/group appraisal data, and (d) counseling/instructional interventions.

11. Evaluation procedures.

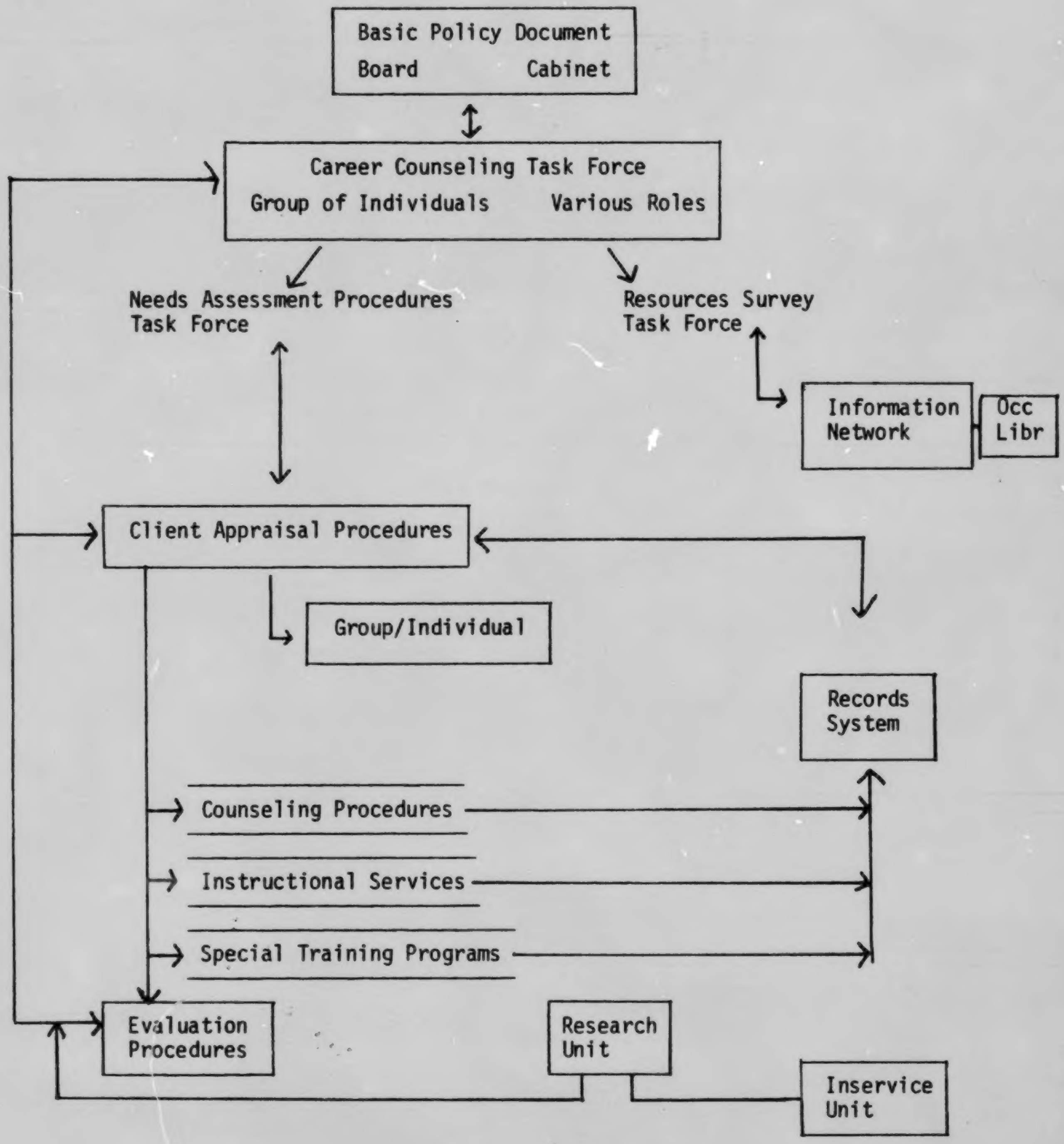
12. Career education research unit or function.

This unit might not actually do research, but rather review the relevant literature to determine which career needs and services are generally perceived as important.

Task forces might proceed to local program development by asking which parts of the ideal system are presently in operation, and which parts that are not in operation might prove useful and appropriate to the local needs and situational constraints.

Schematically, the ideal system is represented on the following page.

Schema of Comprehensive Career Counseling Model


Basic Policy Document
Board
Cabinet
Career Counseling Task Force
Group of Individuals
Various Roles
Needs Assessment Procedures Task Force
Resources Survey Task Force
Information Network
Occ Libr
Client Appraisal Procedures
Group/Individual
Records System
Counseling Procedures
Instructional Services
Special Training Programs
Evaluation Procedures
Research Unit
Inservice Unit

UCLA Career Counseling Project

____
Task Force Name

QUESTIONNAIRE I. BASELINE DATA

Fill in
Blank or
Circle Response

A. The Policy Statement

1. Which officials are responsible for making policy in your school?

____
Names

yes/no 2. Are the persons responsible for making career ed policy aware of their responsibility?

yes/no 3. Do they meet regularly (at least once a semester) to discuss policy?

yes/no 4. Does your school have a written policy regarding student career development?

yes/no 5. Does the policy statement specify the intended outcomes, including outcome measures of career ed in your school?

yes/no 6. Does the policy statement name the persons or offices responsible for achieving those outcomes?

yes/no 7. Does the policy statement contain a statement of how career education will be evaluated?

yes/no 8. Is the policy statement understood and supported by the people who actually do the career education? (Do they agree with the goals as important and feasible?)

yes/no 9. Does the policy statement specify the resources (money, staff, materials) allocated to career education?

yes/no 10. Does the policy distinguish career counseling from career education; that is, does it recognize career counseling as offering career development services to each student based upon individual problems and potentials, as opposed to career education, which offers instruction based upon the developmental tasks corresponding to the student's grade?

B. The Career Guidance Task Force

yes/no 11. Is there a designated leader or coordinator whose job is to get the members of the task force to work cooperatively?

yes/no 12. Have the other members of the career guidance task force been assigned specific duties?

yes/no 13. Does the task force have administrative and financial support?

yes/no 14. Is the task force active? (Does it meet regularly, communicate its decisions, coordinate programs and services, assist teachers, counselors and administrators, etc.?)

C. Specification of Career Guidance Goals

yes/no 15. Have the subgoals of the career education program (i.e., the objectives to be accomplished by each of the persons working in career education) been specified?

yes/no 16. Have the subgoals of the career counseling program been specified?

QUESTIONNAIRE I: BASELINE DATA (cont.)

yes/no 17. Are the subgoals stated in such a way that they can be measured?

D. The Data Base

yes/no 18. Is there an accurate procedure for assessing the progress of all of the students in your school? (For example, is there a procedure for regular student interviews with counselors or teachers, written records of student progress, etc.?)

yes/no 19. Is there an effective procedure for identifying the majority of students who need special help because they are not making normal progress in academic and/or career development?

yes/no 20. Are the special career education needs of the students in your school reviewed at least once a year?

yes/no 21. Are the results of that review explained to the teachers and counselors who could use them?

yes/no 22. Are the results being appropriately used? (Is there follow-up action once a student has been identified as needing special help?)

yes/no 23. Can trends in student needs be noted?

E. The Appraisal of Individual Students

yes/no 24. Has someone in your school been assigned the responsibility of routinely assessing the individual needs of students who have identified as needing special help?

yes/no 25. Have assessment procedures been developed for determining why those students need help--i.e., for determining the causes of their difficulties?

yes/no 26. Do the assessment procedures provide information about the student's abilities and resources as well as about their weaknesses and needs?

yes/no 26a. Do current procedures for identifying and assigning students to career development programs enable individualization, that is, can the assigned instruction be adapted and/or paced so it accords with the student's individual differences?

yes/no 27. Are these assessment procedures employed routinely?

yes/no 28. Is the information provided by the assessment procedures being used by teachers, counselors, and students? (Is there follow-up action once the individual's needs and resources have been assessed?)

yes/no 29. Are there procedures for directing students who are identified as having career development problems to counseling, infusion, or other appropriate remedies.

yes/no 30. Does each student have an advisor (counselor, teacher, paraprofessional adult volunteer) with whom he or she can discuss career development recommendations and increase motivation for following them?

_____% 31. What percentage of students with career problems are being served?

F. Career Development Interventions: Design and Delivery of Services

yes/no 32. Has someone in the school been assigned the responsibility for selecting and developing the inteventions (the kinds of remedial procedures) that are suggested by the appraisal of individual students?

yes/no 33. Have the needed programs been developed?

QUESTIONNAIRE I: BASELINE DATA (cont.)

yes/no 34. Are these programs being used?

yes/no 35. Has someone in the college or school catalogued the career development services available to students and made sure that teachers and counselors are aware of the services?

yes/no 36. Is there a person who coordinates career development services such as counseling, infusion, placement and work study to insure that they are complementing one another and not duplicating each other?

yes/no 37. Does the coordinator have the needed clerical assistance, space, and allotted time to be effective?

yes/no 38. Are the counseling, infusion, placement, and work-experience services provided to classes and small groups described in sufficient detail so that different staff can offer them with comparable effectiveness?

yes/no 39. Are the career counseling services provided to individual students described in enough detail so that different staff offer them with comparable effectiveness?

yes/no 40. Do teachers include prearranged career development infusion exercises in their class offerings so that students with particular needs can be assigned to the class?

_____% 41. What percentage of teachers do this?

yes/no 42. Can students review their post graduation plans with a knowledgeable staff member and obtain assistance either in entering more advanced training or in securing employment?

_____% 43. What percentage of students avail themselves of this opportunity?

yes/no 44. Is there a class or counseling group in which a person can learn systematic decision making and then be guided in making systematic career decisions?

yes/no 45. Is there provision for enabling a student to "shadow" or observe a worker on his or her job intensively for several days?

yes/no 46. Are advisers (counselors, teachers, paraprofessionals, adult volunteers) prepared to review test and other self-appraisal data with the student in order to clarify goals, talents, interests, etc.?

yes/no 47. Are efforts made to encourage women, minorities and handicapped students to consider nontraditional occupations and to acquaint them with laws which assure their access to occupations previously restricted because of discrimination?

G. The Library of Occupational Information

48. Is there a well indexed collection of occupational information including job trends, information about preparing for jobs, local job opportunities accessible to students and staff?

_____% 49. What percentage of students use the information?

_____% 50. What percentage of staff use the information?

H. The Work Experience Programs

yes/no 51. Does someone in the school have the responsibility for develop-work experience?

QUESTIONNAIRE I: BASELINE DATA (cont.)

yes/no 52. Are there a number of placements that provide students with the kinds of "hands on" experiences that will teach them about the nature of work?

yes/no 53 Are the students most in need of work experience being selected for those work experience programs?

yes/no 54. Are the intended outcomes of work experience specified in such a way that they can be measured?

yes/no 55. Is the effect of the work experience program on students being evaluated?

I. The Information Network

yes/no 56. Is there an active community advisory committee serving the task force?

yes/no 57. Do members of the task force have a list of cooperating agencies, e.g., social welfare agencies, businesses, etc., in the community, along with the names of individuals in those agencies who are prepared to provide support services?

yes/no 58. Is there a single source of up-to-date information about special schools, training programs, apprenticeships, etc., that are available in the community?

yes/no 59. Is there a reliable and up-to-date source of information about job opportunities in the community?

yes/no 60. Do students, teachers and counselors make use of these sources of information?

J. The Research Function

yes/no 61. Are one or more staff persons obtaining or generating the additional information that is needed to do a good job of career guidance?

yes/no 62. Have those persons been provided with the time, staff, and budget that they will need?

yes/no 63. Are the results of their work being used by those who need the information?

K. Inservice Training

yes/no 64. Is there an inservice training program in career guidance for counselors and teachers?

yes/no 65. Does the training address the real problems that the staff faces in career guidance?

yes/no 66. Is the training being attended by those who need it?

yes/no 67. Is its effectiveness being routinely evaluated?

L. The Evaluation Plan

yes/no 68. Is there a plan for determining whether or not the career education activities make a positive difference in students?

yes/no 69. Are adequate resources, -- time, personnel, funds -- being devoted to evaluation?

yes/no 70. Is the evaluation plan in operation?

yes/no 71. Are the results of evaluation being used to correct and improve the career guidance program?

QUESTIONNAIRE I: BASELINE DATA (cont.)

yes/no 72. Does the career counseling task force formally study successful students in order to develop ideas for treatments necessary to assist students who are not succeeding in their career development?

____% 73. What percentage of the staff who provide career development services are evaluating their own efforts and using the feedback to improve services?

M. Description of Alternative Career Guidance Frameworks

74. If your school's career guidance framework does not contain the thirteen components given above, please describe, in as much detail as possible, the framework used in your school.

OUTLINE OF A COGNITIVE FRAMEWORK FOR COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

Although many counselor candidates and practitioners eschew theory and want to learn only techniques, there are several reasons why counselors should learn a theory of counseling prior to or at any rate concurrently with counseling methods. We need a theory of complex human behavior in order (1) to understand the feelings, behavior, and problems of our potential clients; (2) to guide us in selecting from among potential clients those we are most likely to be able to help; (3) to help us determine what kind of treatment a particular client needs, once we decide to try to help that person; (4) to guide us in the evaluation of the treatment we select or develop; and (5) to guide us in the research we do in order to improve our methods and the theory itself.

Although the field of psychology abounds with theories, theories of learning, development, motivation, and psychotherapy, apparently offering us many from which to choose, and although many people in the field of psychology spend a great deal of time writing and talking about these theories--witness the attention Freud has received over three quarters of a century--it is unfortunately the case that none of the contemporary theories is really satisfactory. Indeed from the point of view of the natural sciences, psychology doesn't yet have a respectable theory. And from the point of view of practitioners of counseling, no one of the many available theories has been able to attract general support. In short, none is particularly useful in helping us perform all of the five functions listed above. Their deficiencies are well known and have to do with (a) inadequate definition of terms, (b) failure to specify repeatable operations and to indicate when those operations are to be used, and (c) lack of supporting empirical evidence. (Lambert, De Julio, and Stein (1978) for example, have reviewed some of the methodological shortcomings of client-centered theory.)

More specifically, to be useful to a counselor, a theory must possess the following characteristics:

1. It should deal with the phenomena the counselor encounters in his daily work, i.e., with the "normal" problems of living, such as finding a satisfactory career, coping with a marriage, child rearing, surviving depressions, wars and energy crises, aging, and the many other stress-creating problems that drive people to seek counseling. It has been recognized that a shortcoming of behavior modification, for example, and the theory underlying it (operant conditioning is by some criteria our most advanced theory) is that it can be applied to only a small proportion of the people who need counseling. It is useful with persons suffering snake phobias, bedwetting, etc., but less useful with people who are involved in making educational and career decisions, or who are having marital difficulties, or suffering from boredom, guilt, loneliness, etc.

2. A counseling theory should assist the counselor in setting appropriate counseling goals. In other words the theory must have an ethical component (Albee, 1977; Williamson, 1958). In addition to helping the counselor to take account of relevant individual differences in clients and their circumstances, it must take note of the client's relations with and obligations to other people--family, friends, co-workers, neighbors, etc., and in the process of selecting and administering the treatment, consider the probable effects of any counseling treatment on those relationships. Psychological theories by definition do not deal with ethical issues, but counselors inevitably do. The ethical component of counseling theory is discussed at greater length elsewhere (Sorenson and Kassoy, 1979).

3. The theory should guide the counselor in planning a course of action to achieve the counseling goals he/she has selected in an individual case--help him/her to decide what steps to take and in what order. Some methods of counseling, very popular until recently, have acquired a bad name. For example Peter Drucker once said that sensitivity training was like letting children play with razor blades. It seems likely that methods receiving such criticism have too often been applied to anyone who was willing to pay, without adequate preselection and diagnosis. (Some critics have suggested less charitable explanations, e.g., Tennov, 19).

4. The theory should help the counselor evaluate the treatment or counseling intervention that he/she has selected or developed, while it is in progress as well as in follow-up studies. Now that it appears to be generally recognized that any psychological treatment powerful enough to help someone may also be hurtful if misused, counselors need safeguards that will enable them to detect negative consequences early on in a treatment, and before the damage is severe. Again the matter of ethics comes up, for we need a better and more inclusive concept of negative concept than is presently available.

5. The theory should apply to people from different countries and different cultures.

With these criteria in mind, this paper presents a framework to serve as an outline or working model for use by counseling psychologists. It states a set of propositions, both psychological and ethical, for thinking about the clients with whom counseling psychologists work. It describes some of the implications of those propositions for counseling and suggests some steps counselors might take to apply and correct this and similar frameworks. The theoretical position taken is a cognitive one. The psychological propositions are borrowed from or suggested by the theoretical and empirical work of persons who have been identified with cognitive psychology, problem solving, and information processing over the past several decades, e.g., Bruner ( ); Simon and New well ( ); Miller, Galanter and Pribram ( ); Neisser ( ). This cognitive framework also draws heavily upon the writing of Jerome Frank (197)--although I am not certain whether he sees himself as a cognitive psychologist--and Charles Erasmus ( ) in cognitive anthropology. Empirical support for the cognitive counseling methods suggested by the framework has been obtained in research in counseling psychology at UCLA in recent years (Bates, ; Vivell, ; Adler, ; Phelps, 1978, etc.). The ethical propositions implicitly or explicitly stated are the product of considerable reflection upon works in the fields of moral philosophy, ethics, and social criticism.

Coping and Problem Solving in Everyday Living

Although most of us develop habits and skills that enable us more or less automatically, "without thinking," to deal with such problems of daily living as getting to work, paying the bills, satisfying our needs for companionship, etc., it is also true that each day presents new situations and problems. Some of the new situations, e.g., meeting an interesting person, learning something new, are likely to be satisfying. But others are likely to result in psychological distress. A student fails an examination at school. The "date" one had looked forward to proves disappointing. The car on which one depends to get to work breaks down, or is repossessed. The boss is even more irascible than usual. The cost of food goes up again. One receives a "Dear John letter," or loses a job. One's child is ill. One's spouse threatens divorce. A loved one is dying. One realizes that one is terribly bored with one's lot, or friendless, or in need of major surgery.

It now appears obvious that some people cope with troublesome events and the consequent psychological stress much more effectively than others. No doubt there are a number of reasons. Basic temperament, whatever that is, is important. Some people, from the day they are born, are more relaxed, less excitable, and able to take pleasure in little things. Intelligence no doubt plays a part. Intelligent people by definition are better problem solvers, but it is not clear whether it is the bright or the dull who tolerate trouble better. It is a thesis of this paper that learning and experience also play a very important part. Some people know better than others how to manage troublesome events and their own reactions to those events.

I should suggest as working hypotheses that (1) the learning that enables people to cope with troublesome events is basically cognitive, having to do with ways of thinking, and more explicitly, the application of particular concepts and rules; (2) the concepts and rules which enable people to cope effectively can be discovered through careful observation and described; (3) these important concepts and rules can be taught to other persons who need them. To these three empirical propositions I would add an ethical proposition that the two major functions of counseling psychologists should be (a) the discovery and (b) the teaching of the concepts and rules that will enable people effectively to cope with problems of everyday living, and thereby achieve a greater sense of well being (reduction of psychological stress).

Perhaps the most succinct statement to date of the cognitive position as it applies to counseling psychology is that of Frank (1974), who argues among other things (I am paraphrasing) that (1) in order to function successfully and enjoy life, a person must possess a set of concepts and rules--Frank uses the inclusive term "assumptive world"--which corresponds reasonably well with conditions as they actually are; (2) a major cause of psychological distress and inability to function effectively is an erroneous assumptive world--i.e., erroneous beliefs, concepts, and rules; (3) the counseling psychologist's and psychotherapist's major function is to correct the client's erroneous assumptive world, i.e., to teach concepts and rules that will enable him/her to function more effectively and thus improve his/her sense of well being.

Mental Processes Involved in Coping

Cognitive psychologists differ from behaviorists in that unlike Watson ( ), Skinner ( ) and others, the cognitive psychologists believe it necessary to postulate some unobservable mental processes, e.g., "thinking," "planning," etc., in order to understand complex human behavior. In order to understand the remainder of this paper, it is necessary to remember that such terms as "concept" and "rule" have two quite separate but related meanings--that they refer first of all to some of those inferred mental processes, and only secondly to an exhortatory sentence.

A "rule" in this context is an inferred process that presumably occurs in the central nervous system. It is not the kind of process that can be observed by neurologists at the present time. When an experienced driver of automobiles, "consciously" thinking about something other than his driving, nevertheless "automatically" notices and reacts to traffic signals, other vehicles on the street, pedestrians, dogs, children, ruts in the road, etc., we may say that a set of "inner rules" is guiding his/her behavior, and that the behavior is "rule governed" rather than random or purely conditioned.

The inferred inner rules can be represented by sentences, such as "Don't tailgate," "Watch the signals the other drivers give," "Keep an eye out for the highway patrol," etc. The written rule--sentence--is obviously different from the inner rule in that whereas the written rule consists of marks on a piece of paper in a particular configuration, the inner rule (paraphrasing Gagne, 1974) is an inferred capacity to respond in a particular way to a particular class of situations.

Rules are invented by people, and in the process the inner rule apparently comes first, i.e., as "tacit knowledge" (Polanyi, 19), and then the inventor figures out how to represent the rule in words. Before someone could write the rule, "Don't tailgate," he presumably needed to observe categories of driving behavior, name them--tailgating being the name assigned one category, notice the relationship of different categories of driving behavior to other events such as bumping into the car ahead when it slowed quickly, and then formulate (perhaps in his mind) a deliberate kind of action. Only then could he formulate the sentence recommending that action.

By this way of thinking, coping with traffic on a city street, or getting along with a teacher, a boss, or a spouse, involves at least five mental processes (kinds of inner rules) that have been inferred by cognitive psychologists. All of these processes are partly a function of the individual's biological equipment, but all of them also require practice in order for them to develop. (1) Observing, i.e., noticing particular objects and events. (2) Classifying--i.e., mentally grouping those objects or events that have something in common, according to some "inner rule" (an inclusion rule) that tells what is to be included and what is to be excluded from a set or category. For example, Joe is classified as "typist" because of the kind of work he does. (3) Observing relationships between categories of events. For example, when Mary comes into the room, Joe suddenly becomes inefficient. (4) Predicting, e.g., if Mary hangs around the office, Joe's work will suffer. (5) Planning an intervention, e.g., if I want Joe to get his work done, I'll probably have to tell Mary to stay away until after 5 p.m.

This list is not intended to be exhaustive. It is useful because it enables us to identify many of the "cognitive failures" that cause people trouble. Some examples: (1) Observation. Peter got a ticket because his attention was focused on his passenger, Nancy, and he failed to notice that he was (a) exceeding the speed limit, and (b) passing a member of the Highway Patrol. (2) Categorization. George had to burn his clothes, not because he failed to notice the little black animal with a bushy tail and stripes down its back, but because he thought it was (i.e., he classified it as) a kitten and tried to pick it up. (3) Observing relationships. Ben experienced a good deal of mental difficulty, partly because he repeatedly failed to notice that when he talked about his old girl friends in front of his wife, which he did frequently, she became quiet, her color changed, she showed signs that a more perceptive man would have taken as indications of anger. (4) Prediction. Ben's wife divorced him, something he didn't want to happen, because he failed to anticipate--failed to predict--the fact that his continuing "counterproductive behavior," i.e., bragging about his old girl friends, would result in her becoming increasingly dissatisfied with her relationship with Ben. (5) Intervention. Had Ben correctly classified some of his own actions as counterproductive, noticed their repeated effect on his wife, and predicted the ultimate consequences, he might have been able to modify--intervene to control--his own behavior in time to save his marriage.

Human Problems

A problem may be said to exist when both of two conditions are present. There must be (a) motivation, and (b) ignorance or misinformation. A person who (a) wants to do something, and (b) doesn't know how to do it, may be said to have a problem. Unless both conditions are present there is no problem.

By this definition problems exist only in persons, and problems are always subjective. Rocks and rivers, for example, do not have problems, unless of course one believes that rocks and rivers possess motives and knowledge. It follows that a situation which presents a problem to one person may not be a problem to another, and the same situation may cause different problems for two different people. A divorce, for example, may be a problem for one member of the marriage, but a solution for the other.

Human problems get solved in two ways: (a) The goal--motivation--changes. For example, the man who received the "Dear John letter" becomes attracted to a new girl, begins to pursue her, and stops grieving for the old one. Or (b) the person with the problem somehow acquires the concepts and rules needed to solve his (her) problem (Gagne, 1974). Just as a person needs the concepts of addition, multiplication, etc. in order to balance a check book or work as a checker, so a person needs concepts and rules relating to "fairness," "loyalty," "promise keeping," etc. in order to maintain satisfying interpersonal relations.

Psychological Distress

Psychological misery can be both a by-product of a problem, i.e., it may take the form of feelings of extreme frustration at not being able to solve an important problem, or a part of the problem itself, in the sense that a person in psychological distress, although highly motivated to reduce that distress, may not know what steps to take.

Writers in several fields believe that it is predictable that a person who has a strong want or goal, but does not expect (predict) that he/she will be likely to achieve that goal, will experience psychological misery in the form of discontent, anger, depression, or other kinds of psychological misery.

The point to repeat is that it isn't the problem that triggers the psychological distress--it's the belief (prediction) that one will not be able to solve the problem.

A Counseling Strategy

An additional characteristic of people which sometimes makes problem solving difficult and usually complicates the task of the counselor who wants to apply these concepts in helping people to solve their problems is the fact that the inferred mental processes are not observable--they have to be inferred from overt behavior or the products of overt behavior, e.g., something a person has said, written, etc. Although Ben didn't notice the signs that his wife was getting angrier and angrier, even he might have inferred that something was going on inside her head if she had punched him in the eye.

Because important mental events are not observable, many potential counselees are not able to determine without assistance whether or not they actually need help, or the kind of counseling that they need. Some clients know only that they are miserable, and have been for a long time, and don't know what to do about it. I am not arguing that important motives and habits are "unconscious" because they have been repressed, merely that the human nervous system is constructed in such a way as to permit the individual to observe his own mental processes to only a very limited degree. Furthermore, most of us are not especially skilled in self observation, or in making correct inferences from our self observations.

And so a four-phase counseling strategy is recommended. It is presented here as four successive steps. In actual practice the counselor works back and forth from one step to another, and repeats some phases several times.

1. Identification. In the first phase the counselor looks for evidence that will enable him/her to determine whether or not the individual has the kind of problem or potential problem that warrants counseling. This first step then, is a process of gathering information about a person from that individual him or herself and from others who know the person. The counselor asks him or herself what are the signs that the person (a) experiences continuing psychological distress, or (b) manifests behavior that is very likely to lead to distress in the future.

The counselor asks the self-referred client such questions as, "Why are you here? What do you hope to get from counseling? What are the things that you would most like to change about your life? Under what conditions are you most satisfied, least satisfied, etc.?

The cognitive counselor listens to the client's answers to those questions in order to make inferences about the client's goals. When the counselor thinks he/she understands what the counselee wants to accomplish, or the changes the counselee would like to have occur in his/her life, the counselor states the client's goal in the counselor's own words, i.e., he/she paraphrases, giving the client a chance to correct what the counselor has said, in order to make certain that the counselor has understood the client.

2. Diagnosis. As the counselor begins to formulate a set of hunches about the client's goals or dissatisfactions--what the person would like to change in his or her life, he begins to ask himself, "What are the causes of the problem? Why can't the person solve it on his/her own?"

To attain a fuller understanding of the counselee's belief system (assumptive world) and thus attain some clues as to the nature of the cognitive deficits or errors, the counselor asks such questions as, "What would have to change in order for you to achieve your goal(s) or to change your life in the ways you would like it to change? What stands in the way of your doing what you want to do?" And as the counselor listens to the client's answers and paraphrases them to make certain that he/she is understanding the client, the counselor formulates a more specific set of hunches about the counselee's cognitive defects. Does the client fail to notice important events? Does he/she fail to see how his/her habitual ways of doing things contribute to the problem? Does he/she lack concepts that would enable him/her to take corrective steps? If so, what concepts?

To find supporting evidence for his/her hunches, the counselor asks questions and listens for information about critical patterns of events in the counselee's life. If the client is unhappy because he fights with his wife, the cognitive counselor wants to find out such things as how frequently do the fights occur? Under what circumstances? What triggers them? How does the husband's account of such events differ from the wife's? What counterproductive actions does the husband take? How does he perceive those actions? What concepts would enable him to perceive them in a more accurate and useful way?

3. Planning an intervention. As the counselor becomes more clear about the client's circumstances, the patterns of counterproductive behavior, the mental events (interpretations and rules) which govern that behavior, and the changes that need to be made in the client's concepts and rules, he/she begins to plan an instructional strategy (Sorenson, 1967).

In addition to deciding what new concepts and rules the client needs to learn in order to solve his/her problems, the counselor faces the tasks of (a) teaching the needed concepts in such a way that the counselee can see or discover useful applications, and (b) keeping the client's feelings of anxiety and threat within manageable proportions.

Fully to explain the instructional aspects of counseling requires more time and space than can be given here. However the following illustrations and generalizations may be of some value. In the approach to counseling (teaching) that I use, the first step is to name the concept to be taught. The counselor might say, for example, "A concept is the name of a class (category) of objects, or events, or relationships. The concept I am going to teach today is the concept of psychological threat. Threat is the name of the concept."

Then the teacher or counselor gives a verbal definition of the concept to be taught. For example, "A person may be said to experience threat when (a) a particular event or situation is (b) perceived as somehow dangerous, and (c) the person experiences a feeling of apprehension.

The instructor then presents two or three common instances of the concept or class of events being discussed. For example, "Many people experience threat when called upon to make a presentation in front of a group. Some people dread going to the dentist, etc."

The instructor then asks the learner to give two or three different instances of the concept. This is an evaluation step, to which we will return presently in the discussion of phase 4. If the learner can give instances of the concept not previously given by the instructor, it may be inferred that he/she at least partially understands the concept.

The instructor may teach some rules about the causes of threat, e.g., "Many people experience threat when another person expresses strong disapproval of their actions in emotional language. If, for example, a husband were to say to his wife, "You are a lousy housekeeper, a nag, and a slut," like most wives who cared for their husbands, she would probably experience threat.

The instructor may teach some of the consequences of threat, e.g., "Threat frequently causes people to act in irrational, uncontrollable ways. For example, the wife who was called a slut might throw a plate at her husband, and that act in turn might provoke serious, irreversible trouble.

As the instructor begins to sense that the counselee has some understanding of the events subsumed under the term "threat," what causes these events, and their probable consequences, he/she might ask the client, "Would you care to discuss some of your own experiences with threat? What do you think were the causes? The results? Are there things you might do to reduce the amount of threat you experience?"

One counselor who tried this approach heard her client reporting that the client experienced terrible feelings of apprehension when her husband came home even half an hour late. She visualized him lying hurt in a hospital, or unhurt, in the arms of another woman. Her apprehension would build to a point that when he did come in, she would scold and scream so violently that he would become angry, and would sometimes leave the house again and stay out all night. The wife realized that her scolding and screaming were both irrational and counterproductive--that she was driving her husband away rather than pulling him towards her. The counselor taught her a substitute pattern of behavior for her screaming and nagging, namely to say to her husband when he came late, "I've been extremely worried and I'm very glad you're home. I always worry when you are late. You see I have this terrible imagination, I either think that you've been in an accident, or that you are out with someone else, etc." The counselor taught the client that the rule was to communicate her own feelings without at the same time attacking the other person. That bit of learning did not solve the entire problem of their relationship. But it was an important step. For when the husband heard his wife's account of why she had been so emotional, he first expressed astonishment at her for being so "silly"--but then volunteered to telephone when he was going to be late.

4. Evaluation. Given the failure of most counselors and psychotherapists objectively to demonstrate the effectiveness of their methods (references) and given the fact that some persons have been seriously damaged by some of the popular methods of counseling and psychotherapy (ref), the counselor needs a procedure for evaluating the methods that he/she uses, both while counseling is in process and also in follow-up studies, in order to protect clients, and to obtain information needed to improve those methods. The evaluation procedures must include tools for observing immediate, short-range, and longer-range changes, both positive and negative, in the feelings, beliefs, and actions of clients. To be worth doing, the evaluation procedure must be planned concurrently with planning for the first three phases of the counseling procedure.

For purposes of evaluation, we need "base line" data, i.e., information about the condition of the client at the beginning of counseling. And we need follow-up data to compare with the base line data so that we can determine whether or not the kinds of changes we want actually occur in the client. An example of an immediate change might be client's learning to recognize (infer) instances of threat in himself and others. A more substantial change would be the client's learning of some useful rules for preventing and reducing threat. Still a longer range change might be the client's developing the habit of acting in such a way as to prevent threat. An even more substantial change would be a reduction in, say, high blood pressure, if it could indeed be shown to occur as a result of teaching a client to deal with threat.

Again, this brief account is not intended as an adequate definition of the function of evaluation in counseling, but merely an attempt to show its place in a counseling strategy.

ON PROBLEMS AND PROBLEM SOLVING

Garth Sorenson, UCLA Career Counseling Workshop

I. Assumptions

A. The counselor's major functions include helping people

1. to solve problems of living (see below)

2. to develop their positive potentialities

3. to reduce psychological discomfort and increase sense of well being

B. Counselors do their job by applying knowledge gained from personal experience as counselors, from applied ethics (moral philosophy) and from psychology and related disciplines.

C. Counselors must be accountable. We must use methods that can be objectively evaluated; and we must devote a part of our professional effort to evaluating and improving those procedures.

II. Definitions

A. Event. A happening, occurrence

1. Public (external) events are those that are potentially observable by two or more individuals. Jogging, pounding a nail, the flash of lightning, the sound of thunder are examples of public events.

2. Private (internal) events are those that are potentially observable by only one person. Dreams, toothaches, feelings of guilt, vocational interests are examples of private events.

B. Concept. A set of decision (inclusion) rules that define a class category) of events, objects, or relationships. The rules may be in an individual's head (see rule below) stated orally, or written down.

C. Principle. A statement of the relationship(s) between two or more concepts, e.g., "men like women," "punishment sometimes inhibits unwanted behavior," "young people usually have to try out several occupations before finding one they like."

D. Know.

1. To be informed about, familiar with, aware of, e.g., "I know that one needs less than a high school education to perform 80% of the jobs in this country."

2. To be able to do; to have a skill as a result of experience, e.g., "John knows (how to speak) Spanish, and (how to play) the violin."

E. Understand. To perceive the meaning of, grasp what is meant. A person may be said to understand a concept when he/she can

1. correctly paraphrase the defintiion, i.e., define the concept in his/her own words.

2. cite correct instances of the concept not given by the teacher or textbook.

3. recognize whether or not a particular instance is an example of a concept.

4. apply the concept in solving a problem (see III-D).

F. Infer. To arrive at a decision or opinion by reasoning from observations or information. "I infer that John Doe is not interested in this workshop from my observation that he attends only part time and is frequently late to the sessions he does attend."

G. Problem. A problem occurs when a person wants to do something and doesn't know how to do it. Both of two conditions, (a) motivation, and (b) ignorance, must be present for there to be a problem.

H. Problems of living. Unpleasant and recurring difficulties that sometimes arise as individuals strive to achieve physical and material well being, satisfying relations with other people, personal fulfillment, etc. Problems of living with which counselors are commonly concerned have to do with career planning, personal conflicts, difficulties in child rearing, etc.

I. Cause. A situation, or event, or agent that produces an effect or result. A condition that when present allows an event to occur. If for example children must be attentive in order to learn what their teachers want them to learn (principle), then inattention can be a cause of failure to learn.

If it is a condition that a person must have a high school diploma to get a particular kind of job (although not necessarily to perform it), then lack of a diploma may be said to be a cause of unemployment. (Note: that is not to suggest that lack of a high school diploma is a major cause.)

J. Rule.

1. An inferred mental process that enables a person to cope with a category of events or relationships, e.g., noticing, categorizing, perceiving relationships, inferring causes, making plans.

2. A sentence that represents such a mental process. Example: Recently I overheard a teen-ager tell her friend how she had coped with a potentially embarrassing event. "The men were whistling and making remarks, but I just kept walking and didn't say nothin." I infer that her rule might be stated, "To avoid being accosted, look straight ahead, say nothing, and keep walking." (See also III-D-2.).

K. Maxim. A general principle drawn from practical experience and serving as a rule of conduct. The illustration in J-2 represents a maxim, a rule, and a heuristic rule (see III-D-2).

III. Some propositions about problems and problem solving.

A. Problems exist within persons--not outside persons. A situation that is a problem for one person may not be for another. When we talk about "the problem" we actually mean a particular person's problem, e.g., the counselor's problem, or Jane Doe's problem. Sometimes it is useful to ask, "Who has the problem?".

B. A problem disappears when (1) the motivation which was part of the problem changes; (2) the ignorance is remedied, i.e., the individual learns how to do something he/she could not do before; or (3) the situation changes so that the obstacle is removed. For example, if the woman who had written a Dear John letter changed her mind and told John that she wanted to marry him after all, the problem evoked by his receipt of the letter would have disappeared. (That is not to say he might not have a new set of problems.)

C. People fail to solve problems when they (1) are unable to give up unrealizable goals; (2) lack needed information; (3) are misinformed about matters important to the solution of the problem; (4) have counterproductive habits--habits that make the problem worse rather than better; or (5) experience strong emotions, such as anger, fear, or love which interfere with their thinking.

D. Problem solving requires the application of a rule (or principle, or maxim). We commonly use two kinds of rules in problem solving:

   1. Algorithmic rules are those that will always give a solution, provided that they can be applied to the problem at hand. These are usually arithmetic rules.

   2. Heuristic rules are those that will sometimes give a solution to the problem. Even though a given heuristic rule doesn't always work, knowledge of the rule optimizes our chances of solving any of the class of problems to which it applies. These are usually rules of thumb, based on experience. For example, the rules of grammar are heuristic rules that enable us to communicate more effectively. Social conventions are rules that enable us to live together more easily. Most counseling problems require the application of heuristic rules.

E. Counselors help individuals to solve problems of living by taking actions or asking questions that will

   1. reduce strong emotions that interfere with the individual's thought processes,

   2. clarify values and goals,

   3. reveal obstacles to problem solving, e.g., misinformation, conflicts in goals or values, gaps in knowledge, etc.,

   4. teach concepts and rules in such a way that a person can apply them.

F. Counselors teach by

   1. providing models--setting examples for their counselees to imitate,

   2. explaining concepts and principles,

3. providing exercises, homework, etc., which require that the counselee practice applying what is being taught,

4. giving feedback.

III. Counselors help groups of people solve problems by applying the same techniques they use with individuals. In addition, they sometimes find it useful to

1. help to organize (structure) the group for action, e.g., assign tasks to individuals, or get them to assign themselves tasks,

2. facilitate communication by paraphrasing a person's comments,

3. point out conflicts in values or goals which exist between group members,

4. encourage group members who are in conflict over goals or procedures to find alternatives which are mutually satisfying,

5. encourage compromise when 4 (immediately above) fails.

IV. Outline of a counseling strategy

A. Remind yourself that you are to observe yourself and your actions as well as those of your counselee(s), trying to notice the effects of your actions on the person(s) with whom you are working, making note of what works, so that you can try it again and of what doesn't work so that you can change it.

B. Get acquainted with the counselee or group before you try any counseling intervention. Make the counselee(s) feel comfortable in your presence. Begin to take the steps that will establish your credibility.

C. Ask about (his, her, their) dissatisfactions--the things they want to change, and their priorities. Paraphrase their answers to more fully clarify their wants and goals, and to make certain you have understood what they have tried to tell you. Control your own actions so that the relationship will be a cooperative one but with responsibility for goals with the person(s) you are trying to help.

D. Continuing that cooperative effort, help them to define the obstacles that stand in the way of achieving their goals. Observe carefully to pick up clues as to patterns of negative feelings and counterproductive actions, and the events and situations (causes) that appear to trigger those feelings and actions. Share your perceptions and ideas with them.

E. Try to figure out concepts and principles which if properly applied would enable them to deal with the causes of their difficulties--the obstacles to problem solving. Try to teach them those principles. Try to get them to make their own applications. When you encounter beliefs that are in opposition to those you are trying to teach, try to avoid directly confronting those beliefs--unless they seem inconsistent with the rest of the individual's belief system. Try to get the individual to take constructive action instead of arguing about beliefs, and about who is right.

F. Check periodically to see if (1) the concepts and principles that you have been trying to teach have been learned; (2) applications have been made, i.e., actions consistent with the principles have been taken; (3) goals have been achieved; and (4) psychological distress has been reduced and sense of well being increased.

CAREER COUNSELING TASK FORCE PROJECT 1979
Garth Sorenson, UCLA

INSTRUCTIONS REGARDING CASE SUMMARIES

Counseling requires a good deal of problem solving and decision making on the part of both counselor and counselee. Sound decision making requires the gathering and analyzing of accurate information and the application of valid decision rules to that information. One of the most difficult problems in counseling is how to obtain accurate information about counselees and their predicaments, and about potentially useful interventions.

In any counseling interview the counselor inevitably acquires a great deal of information, most of which must be discarded because it is not relevant to the problem(s) at hand. Obviously the client is not entirely clear about what is relevant or he/she would not need counseling. Indeed one of the things professional training should teach the counselor is a set of guidelines that will enable him/her to determine the nature of a counselee's problems, what decisions have to be made and when, what information is needed in order soundly to make those decisions, and what information can be ignored.

The exercises which make use of case summaries are partly exercises in sorting and classifying information according to a set of rules--determining what is relevant and what is not. The rules to be employed are determined by one's views about the role of the counselor and the dynamics of human behavior. The rules in these exercises are intended to be consistent with the cognitive conceptual framework that is described in the attached paper by Sorenson. A Rogerian counselor, or Freudian or Gestalt therapist, for example, would employ a different set of rules.

It should be remembered that because the counselor is continually receiving new information about clients, psychological diagnosis is an ongoing process and any set of hunches about the causes of a person's difficulties is likely to need revision as the information becomes more complete.

The task in these exercises therefore is not to determine "what is really going on" with the persons described, but to indicate what inferences are warranted from the information presented in the case summaries.

CASE SUMMARY: JOE TAYLOR

George Sylvester had barely sat down at his desk in the Counseling Office at Central Valley College where he worked as a part-time consultant when Joe Taylor walked in. "Professor Newby said I had to see you personally," said Joe.

George had known Professor Newby a long time. "Why me in particular?" he asked Joe.

"I want to repeat Calculus II," said Joe, "and he said he wouldn't let me take the class again without your recommendation."

"How many times have you failed Calculus II?" asked George.

"Three," said Joe.

"And you want to try it again. Why do you need Calculus II?" asked George.

"You have to have it to get a degree in engineering. I want to be an engineer."

"I guess before I could recommend calculus again I'd need to go over your academic record with you, have you complete some of our occupational interest inventories, and review your career plans generally. It might take us as long as a couple of days."

"Why can't you just give me the recommendation?" asked Joe. "There is a track meet on and I want to attend some of the events. Besides, there is this girl . . ." His voice trailed off.

"I'll be back in this office a week from today. Would you like to see me then?" asked George.

"Classes start on Monday. Why can't you just give me the recommendation? After all, if I fail again it is no skin off your elbow. It's my time that's involved." Joe sounded belligerent.

George's manner was mild, soft spoken. "It's also the school's resources, Professor Newby's time, and my reputation," he said.

"I thought you shrinks, or counselors, or whatever you call yourselves were supposed to help people do what they want to do," said Joe.

George ignored the remark, picked up the telephone, and dialed the Counseling Center's psychometrist. "If Joe Taylor comes to see you, please have him do the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, the Kuder Perference Record, and the Terman Concepts Mastery Test. And could you please have someone get an up-to-date copy of his college transcript, and a copy of his high school record, and his admission test scores, and send them all to me."

Part II

Late in the afternoon of that day, after Joe's tests had been scored, George Sylvester spent approximately two hours with him, discussing his high school and college records, his scores on the admission tests and interest inventories, and their implications for his career. He also spoke briefly about job trends and employment possibilities. Joe in turn complained a lot about the bureaucracy of the school, the terrible repressive society in which we live--a society which young people did not make--and the materialism and hypocrisy of the older generation. At one point George had asked, "Why do you want to be an engineer?"

"Well, my father was an engineer, I've just always wanted to be an engineer."

Towards the end of the two hours George had said, "Let me summarize the things we've talked about, and see if you agree with me. First of all, you've always been a good student, but you've done much better in some subjects than in others. You've always made 'A's' in English, history, and foreign languages, for example, and without much effort."

"That's right," said Joe.

"You say you want to be an engineer, and to become an engineer requires that you pass courses in calculus."

"Yes," said Joe.

"And you've always had trouble in math. In both high school and college you've had to repeat math courses."

"Well I didn't like them so I didn't put in enough time on them," said Joe.

"You're gregarious, and self confident around people. You like to perform in school plays, and enjoy participating in class discussions. You have friends."

"Yea," said Joe, "I guess that's about right."

"Although you say you didn't work hard enough in your math courses, you probably worked harder than most of the other students."

Joe did not reply.

"You've probably worked harder and more systematically than most of your classmates in school, but you haven't had any job experience. You haven't had any jobs for which you've received pay."

"Just for cutting my dad's lawn, and other chores. My father said he didn't want me to have to work the way he did when he was a kid."

"You don't see that your school experience which you have enjoyed--except for the math--has any particular relevance to your future occupation," said George. "You were editor of your school paper, and you're a reporter on the college paper, but you don't see those experiences as important in your career planning."

"I love writing," said Joe. "But you are right. You can't make a living doing it. It doesn't pay well enough."

"You don't know very much about what engineers do."

"Well I know they do a lot of different things. There are mechanical engineers, and civil engineers, and electrical engineers, etc. But you're right. My father never got around to telling me what he does, and I never got around to asking him."

"Your interest inventories tell us that you do not like to do the kinds of things that engineers in general like to do," said George. "You don't have the same reading habits, or hobbies, for example."

"Well, work is something you get paid for," said Joe. "You're not supposed to like it."

"But you do have interests similar to those of people who work in occupations requiring high verbal skills--law, journalism, English teaching."

"Look, my father wants me to be an engineer," said Joe, "and he'd say that since he is paying my way he ought to have something to say about what I study. Besides, he's always counted on me following in his footsteps."

"I don't think that you have acquired enough information or done enough thinking to make a decision this afternoon. And I do think that you should consider some alternatives other than engineering. There are a number of ways the Counseling Office can help you that we haven't talked about yet, if you'd want to spend a little more time--not today of course. Would you be willing to come see me again?"

"I'll think about it," said Joe.

"Do you understand why I think you should consider alternatives?"

"Sure," said Joe. "There is my academic record, and my interest inventories, and the aptitude tests we talked about, and my experience on the school newspapers. And if I were not to major in engineering I'd have at least an extra year to explore alternative possibilities before I had to make up my mind." He grinned and acted friendly for the first time. "You even think I could be a college professor if I wanted to be."

"That's right," said George. "Any other questions today?"

"Just one," said Joe, "do I get a recommendation to get back into Calculus II or don't I?"

Name________________________________ School_____________ Date_________ Time req_______

EXERCISE: JOE TAYLOR

Following are a number of statements (inferences) about Joe Taylor, his problems, the kind of help he needs, and the information required to evaluate a counseling procedure. Please read each statement and indicate by encircling the appropriate number on the scale to the right of the item whether or not that statement is supported by information contained in the case summary.

1. strongly disagree, there is counter-information
2. disagree, there is no supporting information
3. undecided, cannot say
4. agree, there is at least one item of supporting information
5. strongly agree, there are several items of supporting information

A. Signs that Joe Taylor has a problem, or is likely to have a serious problem in the foreseeable future.

1.	He has failed a very important course.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	He is bored with school.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	He shows signs of considerable psychological distress.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	He is committed to a plan that promises to cause unhappiness in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	He is lonely, unable to make and keep friends.	1	2	3	4	5

B. Causes of Joe's problems.

6.	He is very impulsive, lacks time management and self-management skills.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	His communication skills are weak.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	He lacks essential skills that he needs to do what he wants to do.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	His chosen vocational goal appears to be inconsistent with his interests and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	He appears to be overly concerned about pleasing his father.	1	2	3	4	5

C. Counseling interventions. Joe's counselors or teachers should

11.	Help Joe to learn more about the engineering profession, and why math is required in engineering schools.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Encourage him and his father to reconsider his plan to become an engineer.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Encourage him to work harder in mathematics.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Encourage Joe to give up the idea of becoming an engineer.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Help Joe examine career opportunities in occupations relating to the subjects he likes best, and in which he is most successful.	1	2	3	4	5

D. Evaluation. Which items of information, if obtained six weeks after Joe's initial interview with the counselor, would suggest that counseling had been successful?

16. Joe had dropped out of school. 1 2 3 4 5
17. Joe had obtained permission to enroll in Calculus II, and was spending 5 hours a day studying calculus. 1 2 3 4 5
18. Joe had discussed his problems with his father, and they had agreed that Joe should consider another major. 1 2 3 4 5
19. Joe had interviewed several teachers, lawyers, engineers, and reporters about their jobs, and what they had to do to be successful in their work. 1 2 3 4 5
20. Joe had begun psychoanalysis. 1 2 3 4 5

Interest Level
0 1 2 3 4 5 6
dull so-so interesting

Difficulty level
0 1 2 3 4 5 6
too easy about right too hard

CCTF Project

CASE SUMMARY: ELKHORN COMMUNITY COLLEGE

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

"Why is it that the counselors are always being asked to defend the counseling program?" asked Roberta Wilson. "Teachers and administrators don't have to explain what they do, or why they should be rehired next year." Roberta Wilson, James McHenry, and Harold Becker, all counselors, were talking with George Sylvester in the faculty lounge at the Elkhorn Community College.

George wished that he were at Bear Creek. "Defend the counseling program to whom?" he asked.

"The administrators," said Roberta. "Particularly the Dean of Students. He's always on our case--asking for records and reports--paperwork. He wants to know how many students we see, and why. He says he needs to justify our continued employment to the college president."

"It's very demoralizing," said James. "Morale at the college is very low."

"Why is morale so low?" asked George.

"It's partly that the college doesn't have a very good reputation," said Harold Becker. "Partly it's the community. We're surrounded by ethnic minorities whose main interest in the college is the Friday night football game. Partly it's the students. A lot of them are substandard--lack basic language skills and aren't much interested in academic subjects. The proportion of students who transfer to 4-year institutions is lower than any other community college in the state."

"Well is the primary purpose of your school to prepare students for the 4-year institutions?" asked George.

"I think that is what most of the faculty believes," replied Harold.

"I think the low morale is partly because of the way the place is run," said Roberta. "There isn't enough direction from the administration. We have a new president. He was a great teacher but has had no administrative experience. The Dean of Students and the Assistant Dean of Students are on the outs with one another. Everyone does as he pleases. It's organized anarchy."

"What role does the head counselor play?"

"We don't have a head counselor," said Roberta. "The old one retired and the Dean of Students has been unwilling to fill the position until, as he puts it, the counselors get their act together. I guess it's partly because he doesn't like any of the senior counselors very well. He warned those of us who are relatively new not to take them as models."

"So the three of you aren't very happy about your jobs," said George.

"We'd quit if we knew of any job openings," said James.

"We even went to the new president, things got so bad," said Harold.

"What did he say?" asked George.

"He sent us back to the Dean of Students," said Hal.

"And he told you to call me?" asked George.

"No, Professor Peterson, who is head of counselor education over at the Big Valley College, sent us to see you."

"So what what do you want changed?" asked George.

The counselors hesitated. Finally Roberta said, "I guess we want the administrators and teachers to change--make the place run better so we can do our jobs. And we want them to stop bugging us about what we do."

"What is your job?" asked George.

"Well to do counseling--behavior modification and assertiveness training, and things like that," said Harold.

PART II

"It sounds to me like there is a great deal of opportunity for counselors at the Elkhorn College," said George.

"What do you mean by opportunity?" asked Roberta.

"Opportunity for someone who wants to do something to help people. Opportunities for counselors."

"But it's all so chaotic," said Harold. "An inexperienced president, a Dean of Students who doesn't approve of us, no head counselor, too much paper work, not enough clerical help, lack of faculty support."

"What is the faculty's complaint?" asked George.

"They want to know why we get paid more than they do--what we do to earn the extra salary," said Roberta.

"And what do you tell them?"

"Well, it's hard to answer."

"What would you do if you were a counselor at Elkhorn?" asked Harold.

"How do you suppose the Dean of Students sees the counseling staff?" George countered.

After a period of silence Harold said, "Well he told the three of us not to be like the senior counselors. He said that in his opinion the senior counselors are just serving their time. They have tenure, relatively good salaries. They do as little work as possible--go home early. He thinks they are just waiting to retire."

"Is his opinion warranted?" asked George.

Again no one said anything. Finally Roberta said, "What would you do?"

"Well, for one thing, I'd try to figure out who the real decision makers are in the school, and what's important to them, and try to develop a program that would please both me and them. Since the president sent you back to see the Dean of Students, I assume that the Dean has some clout. I'd try to figure out which aspects of the Dean's job are most frustrating to him and see if I could solve some of his problems for him."

"Our senior counselors would call that 'brown-nosing'," said Harold.

"I wouldn't know how to figure out what his 'most frustrating' problems are," said Roberta.

"Well you say he's 'on' the counselors all the time. What are his specific concerns? What do you think he wants you to do that you are not doing?"

"He isn't specific. He just says he wants us to do something, and to keep him informed, and to go through channels, and to help him justify our budget."

"That is a lot of information," said George. "One of the things I'd work on is trying to increase enrollments. Administrators are concerned about enrollments these days."

"You mean you'd go out and recruit students?" asked Hal. "You see that as the counselors' job."

"No," said George. "I'd start by making a plan. First I'd try to think about the students around the college who need help and aren't getting it, and how to identify them. For example, you probably have a lot of students who get admitted to the college but who do not enroll in courses, and a lot more who enroll in classes but who don't attend regularly. Those students probably need help in planning their education and careers, and I'll bet they aren't getting it at your place."

"They don't come to the counseling office," said Roberta, "and I wouldn't even know how to find them."

"Start with the student records," said George.

"The student records are not in very good shape," said Roberta. "We don't know who is at school, and who isn't, or why."

"Who is responsible for the records?" asked George.

"The Assistant Dean of Students--and he wants to do his job--but he isn't getting along with the Dean--so the records suffer,"said Roberta.

"I'd think of several groups of students who need help," George repeated, "and figure out how to identify them--target groups. Emphasize target groups not getting help now. I'd spend part of my time getting acquainted with them and the details of their problems."

"That doesn't sound like counseling to me," said James.

"How would you do that?" asked Roberta.

"Talk to them, and talk to the people who know them. Check their records. Ask their teachers about them. Teachers like to be consulted. Consult the teacher a lot and you'll begin to gain some credibility--begin to change their opinions of counselors."

"What would you ask the teachers?" asked Roberta.

"When you're working with a particular student, ask them what they know about that student that the counselors ought to know. And be prepared to have them ask me what I know about that students that they ought to know. And to tell them."

"Wouldn't you be violating confidentiality?" asked James.

"Teachers are professionals too," said George. "I'd keep the Dean of Students informed about what I was doing, and I'd always go through channels."

"Teachers gossip," said James. "You can't trust them. Besides they won't cooperate."

"That hasn't been my experience," said George. "They all have useful information about their students. Most of them will cooperate if you ask them. But you have to be prepared to do something for them in return."

"What would you do about the older counselors?" asked Roberta. "They believe counselors should see only self-referred cases."

"I'd leave them alone," said George. "Save your time and energy to figure out what you want to do and how to do it. Don't waste time trying to change people who don't want to be changed. If you leave them alone maybe they will leave you alone."

"They'll disapprove," said James, "because what you are talking about isn't what most counselors do."

"Maybe it's what they ought to do," said George. "What kinds of records do you keep n[illegible]?"

After a pause Roberta said, "I don't think the counselors keep any records., except in their heads."

"Well after you've selected your target groups try to figure out how to estimate and record the progress of those groups--how to judge how much change occurs--changes in the number of those admitted who enroll in classes, or who make use of your services. Share those records with the Dean of Students, so when he goes to the Budget Committee meetings he's have some ammunition with which to defend you guys, and so you'll get credit for what you do."

PART III

"Who is George Sylvester?" asked James. "What's his title? His training? For whom does he work?"

"I don't know," said Roberta. "Professor Peterson said that he's some kind of consultant."

"He obviously isn't a counselor," said Hal. "I never heard of a counselor like him."

"You think not?" asked Roberta.

"Well he certainly wasn't very helpful," said James.

"I don't know," said Roberta. "I think he said to me, 'Roberta, why don't you figure out what you really want to do on that job of yours, and then go do it? What's stopping you? And keep the Dean informed so that you'll get credit."

"Everything he had to say was just common sense," said Hal. "Not like counseling at all."

Some Principles of Interviewing

One method of obtaining and giving information is the interview. Counselors do a lot of interviewing, although it generally amounts to less than 50% of their duties. You can use interviewing to help assess your students' career guidance needs, evaluate their progress, and occasionally help individuals with particular career concerns.

Below are some principles or guidelines which you can use to make your interviews more effective. In the workshop you can try out these principles, get constructive feedback, and even volunteer to have your role play interviewing videotaped so that you can use the feedback to further improve.

This module has two objectives: (1) to enable you to try out particular interviewing principles in a role play situation and receive feedback on your performance and (2) to enable you to observe and discuss ways of using videotaping to improve learning.

The interviewing principles are:

1. Let the person complete his(her) thought before interrupting.
2. Show the person you are listening through attentive posture and through periodically paraphrasing and/or asking questions about what he(she) is saying.
3. Ask open-ended questions where possible to encourage a person to talk. Open-ended questions require more than one word answers. An example is "What is an open-ended question?"
4. Periodically verify that you are understanding a person by asking whether your paraphrase of the communication is accurate rather than assuming or asserting that it is accurate.
5. Tell the person as explicitly and concretely as possible what your expectations for the interview are and then answer questions.
6. Observe the whole person as he(she) communicates and in your response ask about the emotion exhibited by tone and posture.
7. Be deliberate and patient in formulating your questions and comments and reinforce the person for imitating your deliberation and calm.

There are other principles of interviewing. If you know others, why not list them in the space below and share them in the workshop. The suggested readings should acquaint you with still more principles.

Suggested Readings:

Several manuals for developing interviewing skills are available. Among them are

Brammer, L. The helping relationship. Prentice Hall, 1973.

Carkhuff, R. R. The development of human resources. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

Ivey, A. Microcounseling (rev). Springfield, Ill.: Charles Thomas Publisher, 1974

Additional Principles of Interviewing

DISCOVERING ONESELF THROUGH SCHOOLING

It goes without saying that your students need to know themselves in order to make successful careers. Unfortunately, self-knowledge is an elusive thing. It doesn't just happen. From earliest history, man has been urged to "Know Thyself!" because philosophers recognized that we are one of the most difficult things in the universe to comprehend.

People discover themselves by reflecting on what they do and by observing how others react to them. Our records, our performances, and evaluations of us by others provide the information that each of us synthesizes into a self-concept. In recent years the importance of successful performance and evaluation by others has been recognized. Too many failures and/or negative reactions by others lowers self-confidence. Without doubt, low self-confidence interferes with future performance and aspiration.

You probably already help students acquire accurate self-knowledge and enhance or at least safeguard their self-confidence through your grading procedures. You may even tell your students that you expect them to set goals and obtain feedback in your courses in order to expand and clarify their self-picture or self-concept. Nevertheless, we think that you will like to consider additional ways of strengthening students' self-knowledge, since they are likely to gain more self-knowledge through schooling than any other activity.

The workshop will focus on ways of promoting self-awareness and self-confidence through classroom activities. We will emphasize methods that fit in with what you are doing rather than methods that are appropriate primarily for psychotherapy or personal counseling. We shall discuss examples of furthering self-awareness in the classroom and shall examine the underlying principles of such action. One technique, for instance, is a chart illustrating a student's progress in mastering subparts of a course. The related principle is that self-awareness is more likely to develop if a person receives quick, frequent feedback on specific performances.

We are looking forward to learning about your methods and principles. No one discipline has a monopoly in promoting self-awareness. Since your colleagues in the workshop will represent many disciplines, all of us should be able to learn something new by sharing our practices.

Resource Readings

Many writings have focused on self-awareness, although only a small number describe ways and principles of building self-confidence. It is recommended that you read Chapter 2 of Healy, C. C. Career counseling for teachers and counselors before the workshop. Additional works to peruse include Rogers, C. R. Freedom to learn and Canfield, J., & Wells, H. C. One hundred ways to enhance self-concept in the classroom.

SELF AWARENESS

PRINCIPLES ILLUSTRATED IN WORKSHOP

1. A single performance can give only limited information about us. To recognize the best in us requires continuing observation of performances under favorable circumstance. Youngsters need to learn to judge the reliability and validity of self appraisals and feedback about them in addition to doing self-discovery exercises.

2. We are complex beings living in the past, present and future. Activity and deliberation about our actions, using feedback from different sources and perspectives will increase our self-understanding.

3. Happy, successful people integrate career and other life roles. Recognizing our roles and the amount of energy we invest in them helps us become the person we wish and fittingly raises our self-esteem. Our self knowledge and knowledge of different role demands allows us to select and hence become different.

4. Career choices require synthesizing self and occupational and educational information in order to rank the relative suitability of options. The Career Skills Assessment Program has a test which provides simple examples of how such data are synthesized to create a hierarchy of options.

SELF-AWARENESS

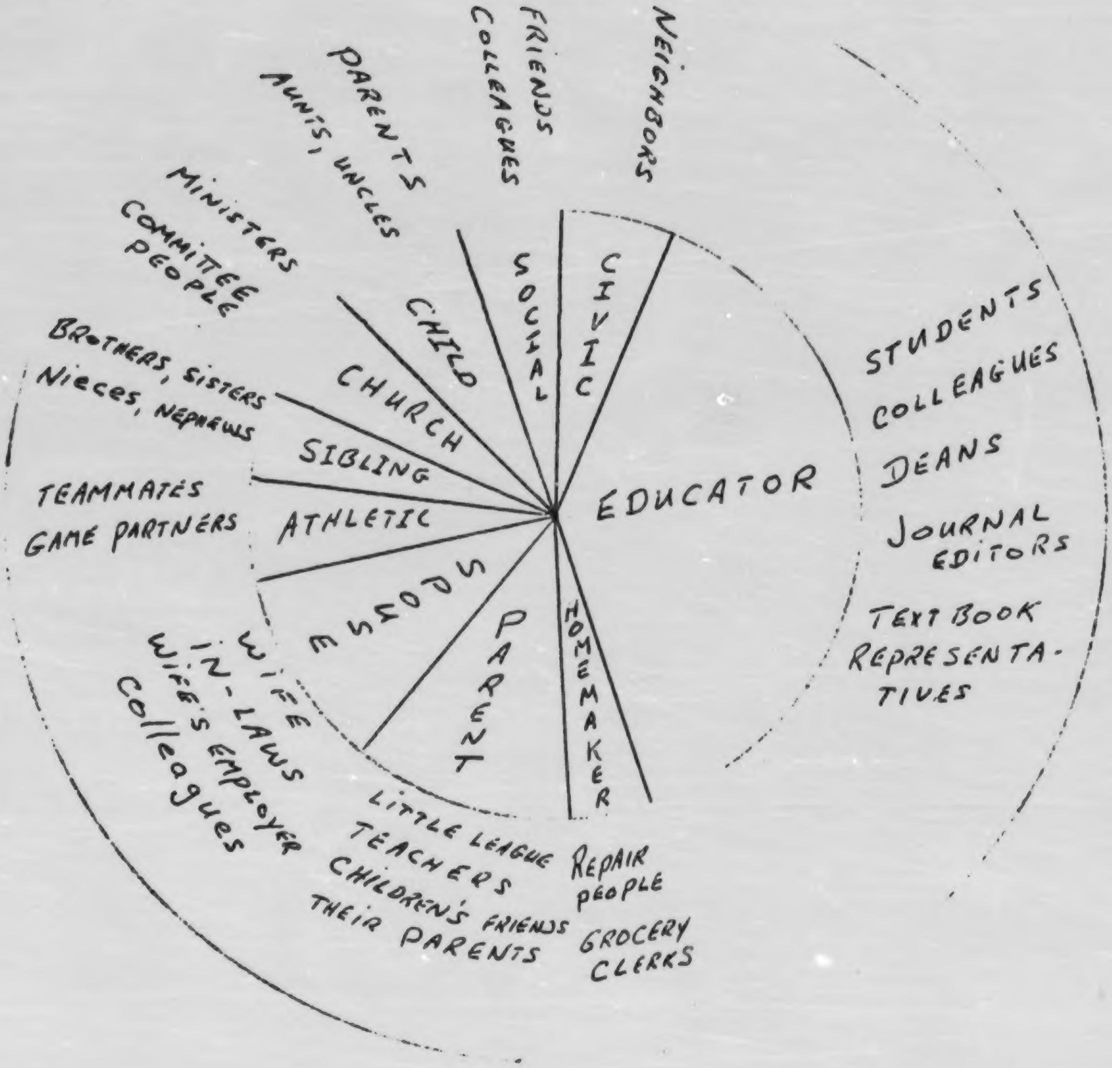
Method	Information
1. interest inventory	what you like currently (influenced by what you have a chance to try and by your associates)
2. aptitude/ability test	what you have learned to do in comparison with others
3. diagnostic/prescriptive test	strengths and weaknesses relative to a criterion and directions about how you might improve (very few such tests exist)
4. fantasy exercise	what you would like to be true of yourself (influenced by the context in which done; you need to insure that you obtain realistic estimates of your fantasy and the possibilities of your doing it before attempting it)
5. self-rating	your thoughts about yourself at the moment based upon selective recall of actions you consider relevant to the trait (Reliability and probably validity can be increased by explicit instructions and training in rating. This is rarely done, however.)
6. identification of your roles	the set of expectations you are more or less regularly meeting
7. review of your time usage	what you are showing to be you and what you are becoming
8. your records, such as report cards, and series of jobs and other positions	the global way in which you have met past challenges and the challenges you have encountered
9. your solved, unsolved problems	clues about your strengths and areas in which you may need to work
10. your plans	what you expect to give energy to accomplish
11. your tryouts and projects and your reflections thereupon	the major sources of information about what you might be able to be and enjoy
12. ratings of others such as teachers, supervisors and peers	aspects of yourself you have shown to others (There is likely to be considerable variability across raters, if biases such as 'halo' are removed.)
13. your possessions and paraphernalia	unobtrusive evidence about how you allocate energy and what you deem important
14. your autobiography	the integrated picture you want to present to others, influenced by reason for composing the autobiography
15. your collage, your favorite object, etc.	the current aspect of you which momentarily you wish to share.

CHARACTERISTICS OF VALID TESTS AND INVENTORIES

1. The manual states explicitly the purposes and applications of the measure and the rationales of both the measure and the attributes being assessed.
2. The manual describes how to administer and score the measure clearly.
3. The manual identifies any special qualifications required to administer and interpret the measure properly.
4. Evidence supporting claims about the meaning of scores is delineated clearly.
5. Evidence is presented to show that performance is unlikely to change markedly over a short time span and information is furnished about the likely precision of a score.
6. Norm groups are clearly defined groups with whom test users are likely to want to make comparisons.
7. The manual illustrates correct interpretations of scores, noting that the scores are estimates rather than absolute characteristics, and the manual should point out common misinterpretations.
8. The items are problems or activities with which users are likely to have had equal experience.
9. The manual shows that care has been taken to select items which are not biased against a particular sex or racial group even though the item may relate to the criterion because it reflects existing societal biases.

Reviews of most tests appear in Mental Measurements Yearbooks. O. K. Buros. Gryphon Press, Highland Parks, New Jersey.

A LIFE SPACE AND PEOPLE IMPINGING ON IT


NEIGHBORS
FRIENDS
COLLEAGUES
PARENTS
AUNTS, UNCLES
MINISTERS
COMMITTEE PEOPLE
BROTHERS, SISTERS
NIECES, NEPHEWS
TEAMMATES
GAME PARTNERS
WIFE
IN-LAWS
WIFE'S EMPLOYER
Colleagues
LITTLE LEAGUE
TEACHERS
CHILDREN'S FRIENDS
THEIR PARENTS
REPAIR PEOPLE
GROCERY CLERKS
STUDENTS
COLLEAGUES
DEANS
JOURNAL EDITORS
TEXT BOOK REPRESENTATIVES
CIVIC
SOCIAL
CHILD
CHURCH
SIBLING
ATHLETIC
SPOUSE
PARENT
HOMEMAKER
EDUCATOR

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY AS A TOOL IN CAREER COUNSELING

by Louis Markert

Several career educators (Bordin, 1963; Dinkmeyer, 1970; Healy, 1975; Tolbert, 1959; and Shertzer & Stone, 1971) have pointed out the value of the autobiography as a method of studying the role of personality in vocational development and a means of promoting career self-awareness. Some issues pertaining to the use of the autobiography in counseling are discussed below.

Types. An autobiography is an individual's written introspective report of his or her own experience. It is classified with such self-reporting techniques as the self-rating scale and the daily record. There are two basic types of autobiographies: the comprehensive autobiography in which the person covers a wide range of interrelated experiences over a relatively long period of time, and the topical autobiography in which a person deals with a specific theme, episode, or experience. These two basic types of autobiography can vary in degree of structure from highly structured to very open. In the case of a structured topical autobiography, for example, structure might be gained from a detailed outline provided for the autobiographer to follow when writing on a specific topic. The structured topical autobiography is generally regarded as being well suited to educational-vocational concerns.

Value. The value of the autobiography is twofold. First, the autobiography provides a vehicle for self-analysis, self-expression, and personal integration for the writer. In reflecting on his or her life, the autobiographer gains a measure of self-awareness. In a career counseling context, the autobiographical exercise helps an individual define and understand the elements crucial to his or her career development. In this context, the technique is particularly effective with individuals who feel a need to sum up their existence and move forward. Secondly, the autobiography provides important data for the counselor. It gives the counselor a holistic picture of the counselee, a sketch of the continuity and integration of the counselee's development, as opposed to a profile of scores obtained from a battery of standardized tests.

Interpretation. The interpretation of the data obtained from an autobiography follows the same rule as the interpretation of data obtained from any single source: the problems suggested must be regarded as tentative hypotheses to be substantiated or discarded in the light of other data. Typically, these data are used to round out the picture of the counselee and to provide clues for further exploration by other methods. The kind of data that the autobiography yields depends upon several factors, including the instructions given to the autobiographer, the autobiographer's motives in writing a personal document, and his or her introspective ability. In a career counseling context, the data obtained through an autobiography are used to indicate career-related problems, formulate objectives, initiate activities, and evaluate and summarize the counseling process.

Critical Variables. The advantages of the various procedures used to obtain an autobiography accrue from the manipulation of three critical variables: the orienting set provided to the writer, the amount of time allotted for writing, the suggested length. Issues related to how the writer is oriented are summarized in the questions: In what person should the autobiographer be instructed to write? Should the writer be instructed to focus on the past, present, or future? To what extent and by what means should structure be introduced? While there is little empirical research on these questions, opinions about them vary widely among advocates of the autobiography. These advocates emphasize the following points. The first person personal pronoun "I" provides a valuable intimacy, while the more detached third person approach may enable the writer to gain a greater perspective. Emphasis on the past tends to elicit information about important life experiences and the effects of these experiences upon the autobiographer's development, while emphasis on the future appears better suited for assessing the person's plans, aims, and aspirations. As to how much structure should be introduced, length of the autobiography, and how much time should be allotted, answers to these concerns depend upon the particular purpose for which the autobiography is being used.

Content. Again, the content of the autobiography depends upon the particular purpose for which it is written. In a counseling context, three general questions might be addressed: What are the primary concerns that motivated me to seek counseling? How do these concerns relate to significant events and people who have influenced my life as a person? How do my current concerns relate to goals, plans, and aspirations for the future? In a career counseling context, these broad questions might be addressed within a career development framework.

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ACTIVITY--AUTOBIOGRAPHY
"My Vocational Development"

Consider your adolescent and young adult years. Write a 5-10 page narrative of your experience during these years, focusing on important elements in your career development. The questions below will spur your thinking. Please contrast yourself relative to these questions at two or three points; for example, during your senior high school year, your college junior year, and two or three years after beginning your career as an educator.

> As a youth, how did you view work (e.g. means to an end? way to support one's self?)? Who influenced you in the development of this attitude (parents, teachers, scoutmaster, etc.) and how? How has your view of work changed over the years?
>
> How extensive was your knowledge of the world of work? What did you know of specific jobs (salaries, duties, training requirements, job satisfactions, etc.)? What things did you do to increase this knowledge (read books, talk to people, do volunteer work, etc.)?
>
> What were your vocational plans, dreams, and aspirations as a youth? In retrospect, how realistic were they? How did they pan out?
>
> What were your strengths and weaknesses as a youth? How did you come to realize them as strengths or weaknesses? How did you use your strengths and overcome your weaknesses?
>
> What were your major vocational obstacles? What did you do to overcome them?
>
> In what ways (social, academic, athletic) were you actively involved in school?
>
> What major factors did you consider in deciding to enter the career you chose as an adult? What resources did you utilize in considering these factors?

Evaluation Component: After completing this narrative, discuss the ways in which this activity has added to your self-awareness. Has the exercise helped you see a developmental process in your life? Have you seen something from a different angle, or learned something new? What is your general reaction to the activity?

INTRODUCTION TO QUALITY OF LIFE

For such a concept as "quality of life" to be translated into measurable objectives, we must answer the questions, "What do we mean by quality of life?" and "What knowledge and skills can teachers and counselors teach their students that will contribute to the quality of their lives?" One more than merely promosing source of ideas and information is the work done by John C. Flanagan (1978) and the Project TALENT staff. The people studied were Americans of both sexes who were 30 years old in 1975. The project staff members asked these people in individual interviews what was most important to them and which were the kinds of experiences that most affected the quality of their lives. The staff then classified the responses into the five major categories and fifteen subcategories which appear in Table A. These categories are potentially valuable to counselors in a number of ways relating to the explicating of the conceptual framework of their counseling program. Flanagan's findings can serve as a basis for (a) discussions about the counselor's role, (b) guides in determining what kinds of measurable objectives and procedures counselors should develop in order to help students achieve those objectives, and of course, in evaluation, as (c) warnings concerning possible unwanted consequences of their procedures as well.

Table A. Components of Quality of Life (Flanagan, 1978)

A. Physical and mental well being

  1. Material well being and financial security.
  2. Health and personal safety, freedom from mental illness.

B. Relations with other people

  3. Satisfactory relations with a spouse, or girl friend or boy friend.
  4. Good relations with one's children.
  5. Good relations with parents, siblings, and other relatives.
  6. Close relations with friends.

C. Social and community activities

  7. Helping and encouraging people other than relatives and friends.
  8. Partipating directly or indirectly in local or national government.

D. Personal development and fulfillment

  9. Intellectual development
  10. Personal maturity and understanding
  11. Having interesting, challenging, rewarding, worthwhile work.
  12. Creativity and personal expression.

E. Recreation

  13. Socializing
  14. Passive recreational activities
  15. Active and participatory recreational activities.

While no one would argue that Flanagan's conclusions are effective, his analysis of the variables that affect the quality of people's lives in American has several obvious merits. It is reasonably comprehensive, yet manageably brief. It is empirically derived--not merely an "armchair effort. It is taken seriously by a number of eminent American educators and thus has credibility. It reflects the same kinds of human concerns that have been observed in cross cultural studies of the quality of life (e.g., Cantril, Hadley, the Pattern of Human Concerns, New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1965). Its comments on the role of the school counselor and the deficiencies in counselor performance as observed by Americans ten years after leaving high school are trenchant, provocative and useful.

Name _______________ School _______________ Date _______________ Time Required _______________

CCTF Project, UCLA

OPINION SURVEY: PART I

Garth Sorenson

Listed below are 15 items (adapted from Flanagan, 1978) referring to aspects of living which influence how people feel about the quality of their lives. As you would expect, not all of the items are equally important to everyone. Any one item is likely to be regarded as very important by one person, and less important by another.

Educators differ in their beliefs about the limits of the school's responsibility for helping people achieve satisfying and fulfilling lives. Some believe that schools should limit their efforts to teaching the academic subjects well. Others believe that schools are obligated to help students achieve satisfaction in all important aspects of life.

For each of the 15 items will you please indicate your opinions by encircling the appropriate numbers on the scale to the right of the items to show (a) the degree of your school's responsibility for helping students to achieve that objective, and (b) the extent to which you believe your school to be successful. 10 indicates great importance or success. 0 indicates no importance or complete failure.

A. Physical and Material Well Being

1. Material well-being and financial security. Having good food, possessions, comforts, money and financial security, and expectations of these for the future.
   responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. Health and personal safety. Enjoying freedom from sickness, possessing physical and mental fitness, being able to cope with the frustrations of daily living, maintain an optimistic view of life and a sense of well being.
   responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

B. Relations with Other People

3. Achieving and maintaining a satisfying relationship with a spouse, girlfriend, or boyfriend. This relationship involves love, campanionship, sexual understanding, communication, appreciation, devotion and contentment.
   responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

4. Having and raising children. This relationship involves watching their development, spending time with them, and enjoying them. Also included are things like molding, guiding, helping, appreciating, and learning from them and with them.
   responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

5. Relations with parents, siblings or other relatives. Communicating with or doing things with them, visiting, enjoying, sharing, understanding, being helped by and helping them, feeling that one belongs and having someone to discuss things with.
   responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

OPINION SURVEY: PART I (cont.)

6. Relations with friends. Having close friends with whom one shares activities, interests, views. Being accepted, visiting, giving and receiving help, trust, support, guidance.
responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

C. Social and Community Activities

7. Helping or encouraging other people. Helping persons other than relatives or close friends through one's efforts as an individual or as a member of some organization, such as a church club, or volunteer group that works for the benefit of other people.
responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

8. Activities relating to local and national governments. Keeping informed through the media; participating by voting or other communications; having and appreciating one's political, social, and religious freedom.
responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

D. Personal Development and Fulfillment

9. Intellectual development. Developing and using one's mind; acquiring desired knowledge, mental abilities, intellectual and problem-solving skills; improving understanding, comprehension, or appreciation in an intellectual area.
responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

10. Personal understanding and maturity. Developing and gaining orientation, purpose, and guiding principles for one's life; achieving maturity, gaining insight into and understanding of one's assets and limitations, experiencing and awareness of personal growth and development, and realizing the ability to influence the course of one's life.
responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

11. Occupational role (job). Having interesting, challenging, rewarding, worthwhile work in a job or home. This includes doing well, using one's abilities, learning and producing, obtaining recognition, and accomplishing on the job.
responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

OPINION SURVEY: PART I (cont.)

12. Creativity and personal expression. Showing ingenuity, originality, imagination in music, art, writing, handicrafts, drama, photography, practical or scientific matters, or everyday activities, etc.

responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

E. Recreation

13. Socializing. Entertaining at home or elsewhere, attending parties or social gatherings, meeting new people, interacting with others. It may include participation in organizations and clubs.

responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

14. Passive observational and recreational activities. Watching television, listening to music, reading, going to movies, going to entertainment or sports events; appreciating the art and beauty in many aspects of life.

responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

15. Active and participatory recreational activities. Participating in sports, hunting, fishing, boating, camping, vacation travel, sightseeing; playing sedentary or active games, playing an instrument, dancing, acting, etc.

responsibility 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
success 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

PART II

For each of the 15 items will you now indicate (a) the degree of your own interest as a member of the Career Counseling Task Force in helping students at your school move toward that potential objective, and (b) your estimate of your present level of preparation and competence in that task. 10 indicates a very high level of interest or competence in that task. 0 indicates no interest or no competence.

A. Physical and Material Well Being

1. Material well-being and financial security. Having good food, possessions, comforts, money and financial security, and expectations of these for the future.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. Health and personal safety. Enjoying freedom from sickness, possessing physical and mental fitness, being able to cope with the frustrations of daily living, maintain an optimistic view of life and a sense of well being.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

OPINION SURVEY: PART II (cont.)

B. Relations with Other People

3. Achieving and maintaining a satisfying relationship with a spouse, girlfriend or boyfriend. This relationship involves love, companionship, sexual understanding, communication, appreciation, devotion and contentment.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

4. Having and raising children. This relationship involves watching their development, spending time with them, and enjoying them. Also included are things like molding, guiding, helping, appreciating, and learning from them and with them.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

5. Relations with parents, siblings or other relatives. Communicating with or doing things with them, visiting, enjoying, sharing, understanding, being helped by and helping them, feeling that one belongs and having someone to discuss things with.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

6. Relations with friends. Having close friends with whom one shares activities, interests, views. Being accepted, visiting, giving and receiving help, trust, support, guidance.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

C. Social and Community Activities

7. Helping or encouraging other people. Helping persons other than relatives or close friends through one's efforts as an individual or as a member of some organization, such as a church club, or volunteer group that works for the benefit of other people.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

8. Activities relating to local and national governments. Keeping informed through the media; participating by voting or other communications; having and appreciating one's political, social, and religious freedom.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

D. Personal Development and Fulfillment

9. Intellectual development. Developing and using one's mind; acquiring desired knowledge, mental abilities, intellectual and problem-solving skills; improving understanding, comprehension, or appreciation in an intellectual area.

interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

OPINION SURVEY: PART II (cont.)

10. Personal understanding and maturity. Developing and gaining orientation, purpose, and guiding principles for one's life; achieving maturity, gaining insight into and understanding of one's assets and limitations, experiencing and awareness of personal growth and development, and realizing the ability to influence the course of one's life.

    interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
    competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

11. Occupational role (job). Having interesting, challenging, rewarding worthwhile work in a job or home. This includes doing well, using one's abilities, learning and producing, obtaining recognition, and accomplishing on the job.

    interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
    competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

12. Creativity and personal expression. Showing ingenuity, originality, imagination in music, art, writing, handicrafts, drama, photograhpy, practical or scientific matters, or everyday activities, etc.

    interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
    competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

E. Recreation

13. Socializing. Entertaining at home or elsewhere, attending parties or social gatherings, meeting new people, interacting with others. It may include participation in organizations and clubs.

    interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
    competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

14. Passive observational and recreational activities. Watching television, listening to music, reading, going to movies, going to entertainment or sports events; appreciating the art and beauty in many aspects of life.

    interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
    competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

15. Active and participatory recreational activities. Participating in sports, hunting, fishing, boating, camping, vacation travel, sightseeing; playing sedentary or active games, playing an instrument, dancing, acting, etc.

    interest 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
    competence 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

PART III

Which of the 15 potential objectives listed in Parts I and II should receive the highest priority in your school, and which should receive the lowest? Please indicate your current opinion by writing the item numbers in the appropriate blanks below.

Priority	Item No.	Priority	Item No.	Priority	Item No.
1st	_____	6th	_____	11th	_____
2nd	_____	7th	_____	12th	_____
3rd	_____	8th	_____	13th	_____
4th	_____	9th	_____	14th	_____
5th	_____	10th	_____	15th	_____

Interest
0 1 2 3 4 5 6
Dull So-so Interesting

Difficulty
0 1 2 3 4 5 6
Too easy About right Too hard

Career Decision Making and Planning

Secondary students make many career decisions. Most obvious are decisions concerning courses and extracurricular activities. But such choices are only the tip of the iceberg. Almost every day adolescents decide again and again how much time and energy to give their courses and activities. They also can make other career choices. Their tests and homework assignments, for instance, often provide options among which they may choose, and again provide practice in decision making.

Some of these decisions are more important than others in determining the shape of a career. All decisions, however, offer the student a chance to learn how to be a better decision maker. Since modern careers involve continual decision making, one's career is likely to be more successful if he or she has developed the habit of good decision making early in life. Consequently, an important career guidance need of students is to learn to use these decisions as a vehicle for improving their decision making.

There are several principles to follow in order to improve one's decisions. The principles are guidelines which often provide satisfying outcomes, but they are not formulae that guarantee that a particular choice will be the best possible. For example, one principle states that use of a systematic approach increases the likelihood of a wise decision; while a second principle advises the decision maker to study the outcomes of people who have already made the decision in order to better estimate the probable consequences of different courses of action.

You already know many principles, although you may not call them that. In the workshop you will be guided to recall or discover the principles which lead to better decision making by reviewing how you made crucial career decisions. The workshop group will then agree on several of the most important principles, discuss how they can be taught to students, and ask for volunteers to demonstrate such teaching. Recognizing how you learned to use these principles should make it easier for you to show your students how to use them.

You will probably recognize the following general steps in decision making:

1. Specify your goal
2. Find out the alternative ways of achieving it
3. Examine the alternatives
4. Select the best alternative for you
5. Carry out that alternative
6. Evaluate your results

Our task in the workshop will be to identify actions that teachers can take to habituate students to using the decision making steps and the other principles of good decision making.

Decision making is discussed in several career guidance texts, but especially well in Tolbert, E. L. Counseling for Career Development, and Herr, Gelatt, Varenhurst, and Carey have authored a useful manual Deciding, for a course on decision making for high schoolers. Healy in Career Counseling for Teachers and Counselors has identified seven principles of decision making which are reflected in contemporary career guidance practice.

References to Material on Career Decision Making

If you know about additional materials on decision making, please bring them or a reference to them.

Problem Solving

Problem solving, planning, and decision making are closely related. To pursue a plan frequently requires problem solving and both involve decisions. Each requires systematic thinking and the belief that what one does has consequences. Problem solving is usually short range, while planning is more future oriented.

Career problem solving occurs more often than career planning. In spite of the relationship among the three activities, however, students who plan and who accept responsibility for their plans and decisions are frequently unaware of where and how they can use problem solving in furthering their career development.

DRAFT COPY

NOTES ON EVALUATING GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAMS

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

Some agencies in any given community have achieved the kind of status that enables them to operate for decades at a time without anyone's raising serious questions about their functions, their expertise, or their daily practices. During my lifetime most of my acquaintances took it for granted that medical doctors, elementary school teachers, scoutmasters, ministers, psychiatrists and the like all were both well intentioned and highly skilled. Oh, one might hear an occasional doubt raised about a particular scoutmaster or even a man of God (e.g., Elmer Gantry), but never about a doctor or a psychiatrist. After all, who was qualified to evaluate *them*?

Questions *were* frequently raised about the adequacy of public schooling, and the ensuing arguments were often both noisy and bitter. But the questions were usually about what was being taught--should you for example keep Latin in the curriculum, or devote more time to "life adjustment?" But rarely were questions raised about the effectiveness of individual teachers. For some decades following World War II, there was such a teacher shortage that school administrators were glad to have almost anyone at all in their classrooms. The shortage was because teachers' wages were low, and so during those years, the teacher unions became established and began to negotiate for salary, tenure, etc.

When large amounts of federal money were first appropriated for various kinds of remedial education, e.g., Head Start and other programs, there was no serious attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of those programs--at least not at the beginning--because people took it for granted that they knew what comprised good teaching. If they couldn't describe it, they could at least recognize it when they saw it. A good teacher was one who "covered" the subject in a way that made sense to an observing adult--never mind how it looked to the kids in the class. A good teacher was one who acted like the teachers an observer remembered from his childhood.

But as dissatisfaction with the schools heightened--some people blamed America's teachers for the fact that the Russians put a space vehicle into orbit before we did--and as competition for public funds increased, the educational evaluation movement was born. Some would say it hasn't been much of a movement, but the idea was to find out which educational practices were most effective and to get teachers to use them. For a while, educational evaluation seemed like a good idea to a lot of people. California even passed a law that said its teachers had to evaluate their methods.

In retrospect the law was a bad idea. It was passed before anyone had thought very long or very hard about what education evaluation is or how to do it. My hunch is that its supporters had, and perhaps still have, a simplistic idea about what is involved in both evaluation and in teaching. Anyhow, the law was very threatening to teachers--after all, they had absolutely no preparation to do evaluation--until they figured out that the law was unenforceable. And so, instead of helping teachers to understand and do evaluation, the law galvanized their resistance to being evaluated, to doing evaluation, or even to thinking about evaluation--ever!

A good deal of time and money have been spent on evaluation since the movement began. I do not believe that it has been wasted, but unfortunately most of the activity has consisted of professional evaluators talking and writing among themselves when, in my opinion, evaluators and teachers and counselors should have been exchanging information and educating one another.

My belief is that the best hope of improving education and related professions like counseling and psychotherapy is to teach practitioners to do their own evaluation. I am not convinced that it will ever happen, but neither am I convinced that it won't. There are many signs that competition for public funds will continue to increase, and that as a result, more and more frequently, practitioners will be challenged to demonstrate the effectiveness of their procedures.

This paper, however, will not attempt to persuade those teachers and counselors who are set against evaluation that they should change their beliefs. It is intended for those who want to assess their practices for the purpose of making them more effective, and who are prepared to give some time and thought to the problems involved.

I should warn that I see evaluation as a complicated and long range enterprise, something analogous to inventing a substitute for crude oil. Educational evaluation is time consuming, tedious, frustrating, and requires a lot of inventiveness. And if it is important as I think it is we'd better get started now.

Reasons for Evaluation

There are two reasons why school people should know how to discover and assess the effects of their own instructional, counseling, and administrative procedures, and why we should schedule time during each of our working days for activities that program evaluation requires. One is to improve the effectiveness of our professional operations and thus provide better services. The second is to obtain the information needed to demonstrate to ourselves and to our constituency (students, parents, school board members, legislators, critics of education, taxpayers, etc.), that we are doing a good job and one worthy of continued financial and moral support. But most educators, unfortunately, are not trained to evaluate their professional activities, and all who write about educational evaluation have not themselves tried to apply the rules and procedures they recommend to others in their own work.

What follows in this paper are some suggestions about how to think about and do evaluation. These suggestions are intended for persons who want to develop the kind of educational programs that can be objectively rather than only intuitively evaluated. The position taken here is that evaluation should be a part of all program development and not just something done by professional, i.e., "external" evaluators. The ideas presented here are derived from three sources: (1) the writings of such authorities as Michael Scriven; (2) my own experiences as an evaluator on a number of federal, state and local educational projects; and (3) my attempts to apply evaluation concepts in developing materials for the courses I teach at UCLA.

The ideas here are not entirely consistent with some of the recommendations of authorities in the field because I've tried to come up with ideas that can be applied by teachers and counselors themselves, to their everyday work, and with only limited time and clerical facilities. I am not suggesting that evaluation can be done with no funds at all--some funds which are earmarked for evaluation and some clerical help are essential.

What Is Evaluation?

Educational evaluation, as the term is used here, is a process of gathering and analyzing information about the effects of various aspects of schooling--teaching, counseling, and administrative procedures--on students. The effects with which we are ordinarily concerned include the acquisition of the knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs and habits that schools are expected to teach. The general question with which evaluation is concerned is whether the lectures, reading assignments, training films, workshops, class discussions, examinations and other planned activities which comprise schooling do indeed produce the positive changes in students that they are intended to produce, or whether some or all of these activities are indeed a waste of time or have other negative effects.

To make evaluation manageable we must, in my opinion, assess the effects of particular components of instruction, e.g., a lesson or set of lessons, a counseling session or sequence of counseling sessions, rather than the educational program as a whole.

Educational evaluation as it is usually conceived is a highly complicated process, but I believe it could be somewhat simplified if decision makers in education would devote time and effort to the problem--something that most of them have been curiously reluctant to do. Doing evaluation requires attention to three important but not impossibly complex tasks. The first, that of goal definition, is to decide what kinds of changes in students (or say, workshop participants) a given program should be expected to make, and how those changes should be measured. The first evaluation task, in other words, is to decide waht "outcome measures" should be used.

The second evaluation task is to specify what the program is, i.e., to describe the operations that are intended to produce changes in students. Spelling out what the program will consist of, needs to be done with sufficient clarity and in enough detail that those operations can be accurately repeated (a) by the teacher herself (b) by other instructors (or counselors, or administrators) who are willing to learn them and (c) with successive groups of students. The purpose of making a program, e.g., a unit of instruction respectable is so that it can be tested and reused--if it is worth reusing.

The third evaluation task is to show that any measured changes that occur in students are indeed a consequence of a particular class, program or course of study, or of a component of that program.

Although I have referred to them as "educational evaluation," these three basic evaluation tasks are essential to a variety of evaluation efforts. They can be applied to the evaluation of the coaching of baseball, the teaching of mathematics, counseling and guidance, psychotherapy, drug therapy, the selling of life insurance, and a great many other operations. The following example, an illustration from baseball, is only one of those that could be cited and will be followed by applications to career guidance and to a career guidance workshop.

An Illustration from Baseball

The three evaluation tasks listed above--setting goals, describing operations, and tracking down the courses of change--might be illustrated by using an example from baseball. (Baseball fans will no doubt detect that baseball is not something I know a great deal about, but one can scarcely turn on the car radio on the way home from work during at least half the year without hearing something about it.) Implicit in this illustration is the assumption that the same abstract rules (guidelines) that are used in evaluating baseball players can be applied to the performance of counselors, teachers of mathematics or foreign languages, to school principals, etc. If one had to learn a separate set of evaluation rules for each of the kinds of performance one might want to evaluate, the evaluation task does indeed become overwhelming. But if it can be shown that a few powerful rules (guidelines) can be applied to a great variety of cases, evaluation becomes manageable.

Let us imagine that the manager of a baseball team wants to help some of his promising young players become better batters. The manager assigns one of his assistants to the task of teaching the players when they are at bat, to hit the ball more often and more effectively. In other words, ability to hit better is the change he wants to produce. He also assigns someone we will call the evaluator the task of finding out whether the coaching operations make a difference, and if so, which of the coaching operations are most useful and worth repeating.

Now the first of the three evaluation tasks, that of determining goals and selecting outcome measures, is not too difficult in this imaginary example. The manager, the players, the fans, and even the to-be-coached players will no doubt all agree that improving the players' performance (hitting the ball better) is an important goal. And for this goal, lo and behold, a set of outcome measures already exists, in the form of the performance records that are kept of each player in each game. I gather that records are kept of the percentage of times at bat that each individual player is able to get a hit, or a homerun, or to enable another player to reach home plate and thus get credit for a run batted in (RBI). Together these records provide a useful and precise description (measure) of each player's performance at bat.

Now the practice of making and recording the observations reported in the records could be said to comprise a criterion sample, i.e., a kind of proficiency or "work sample" test. The work sample, I will argue, is the best kind of outcome measure for education as well as for baseball. (Properly taken it can have most of the properties of the proficiency test, as described by Cronbach, 19).

Having decided upon the outcome measure, our imaginary evaluator will next check the batting records that each of the to-be-coached players has already established in order to establish his "baseline performance" before the coaching actually begins. If the evaluator can establish the baseline performance of his "target population" (the players who are to receive coaching), the remainder of his task will be much easier.

As the coaching proceeds--I am also assuming that the players being coached are participating in regular games--the evaluator can watch each player's batting average to see if it changes for the better, or if it actually gets worse. No doubt the manager and the players themselves will also be watching--but I am getting us prematurely to task number three.

The second evaluation task of our imaginary evaluator is to get the coach to keep a record of *what he does* to improve the player's performances, noting in particular such things as the *directions he gives the batters*, and *any immediate changes in performance* that appear to result from those directions. I've never watched a baseball coach work, but I imagine from what I hear on my car radio that he might proceed somewhat as follows:

a. Obviously he must *observe* the player's performance and the *product* of performance, i.e., watch a player while that player is batting.

b. He must have a standard or "picture in his head" of the perfect or *model* player. In other words he has a kind of "theory" of what good baseball playing is, and that theory includes a standard of excellence.

c. He must mentally *compare* the performance of the play he is watching against the *standard*--the performance of the model player--noting defects in the real player's stance, in the way he grips his bat, in the way he swings, etc.

d. The coach must then suggest to the player that he make changes in stance, in grip, in swing, etc., calculated to bring the player's performance closer to that of the model in his head.

e. The coach must continue to watch as the player plays, noting in particular whether the suggested changes appear to result in improved performance, or have not effect at all, or whether some of them might even have a negative effect on performance.

f. And as the coach continues to watch, he continues to note defects, to suggest changes, and to observe the apparent effects of those changes.

One of the important aspects of the coaching process that I am imagining (if it works the way I thing it does) is its iterative nature, the amount of practice and repetition required for learning. Another is the amount of trial and error involved. If as seems possible, some of the suggestions made by the coach seem actually to have a negative influence on performance, the coach can drop or reverse those suggestions and try something else.

The third task of the imaginary evaluator is to figure out if the changes that occur in the batting averages of the coached players are actually the result of the coaching, or some extraneous factors, such as advice given the the players by their wives and girl friends, or by other players. A moment's reflection will show some of the reasons why this task is complex. For one thing, it is probably true that all of the players are trying to improve their performances, whether they are getting coaching or not, and that some will play better as time goes by, whether they get coaching or not. It is conceivable that a player may suffer a slump in batting average because of reasons beyond the coaches' control, such as change in his physical health, or an emotional upset. Furthermore there are problems in detecting improvements in a player's performance, even when one believes that improvements are occurring. For example the opposing players may also be improving their game, so the player must become a better hitter just to keep his batting average even.

It seems to me that the obvious way to test the effectiveness of a particular batting coach would be randomly to assign half the players who needed coaching to that coach while letting the remainder of the players wait a few weeks for their turn, in the meantime comparing the mean batting averages of both the coached and uncoached groups to see if the coached group appears to be making more progress than the uncoached group. If one repeated that operation several times, the fact that the coach was making a difference, i.e., that there was a noticeable difference in the batting averages of the coached and uncoached groups, should become apparent. I should warn, however, that I haven't checked any of these ideas out with Howard Cosell.

I will pursue the baseball analogy one step further and suggest that the coach is probably interested mainly in the kinds of changes or improvements in player performance that can be accomplished in a matter of minutes, or hours, or at the most days of instruction. After all if you can't help players bat better within a relatively short period of time, the pennant will be lost, or the season will be over. In a similar manner educators should be interested primarily in the kinds of positive changes that can be effected in students in a matter of minutes, hours, and days of instruction. The argument that is sometimes heard against evaluation to the effect that you can't really evaluate the effects of schooling until years have passed by seems fallacious and should be abandoned.

In spite of the obvious shortcomings of the baseball analogy--coaching baseball differs in important respects from teaching algebra or English composition for example--it suggests a half dozen evaluation rules which I believe are useful in educational evaluation.

1. The goals of instruction should be stated in terms of improvement to be effected in the performance of students, whether the performance is in English, mathematics, foreign languages, or baseball.

2. The measures of performance should be in the form of work samples selected from a continuous record of performance. (It should be noted that some teachers have always used work samples to judge student performance and the effectiveness of their instructional procedures, particularly in such subjects as English composition, typing, mathematics, shop, etc. My trigonometry teacher in college gave us a transit and had us make maps. My versification teacher had us write poetry, etc. So in suggesting the use

of work samples I am not suggesting anything new, merely that some old and proven procedures be used more systematically.)

3. Assuming that course tests are designed which take the form of work samples, then teachers should "teach for the tests." In other words, instruction should be chosen to fit the tests, and not vice versa.

4. In the teaching of English composition, mathematics, etc. many repeated observations should be made of a given student's performance, and then note should be taken of which instructional procedures seem effective in bringing about an improvement in performance.

In order to validate the teaching method,

5. The procedure of first assigning half of a group of students to a particular instructional program and then observing the progress of both groups, comparing the uninstructed groups' progress with that of those who've been taught, appears useful where it can be managed.

6. Some instructional outcomes should be "short-range," i.e., expected to occur in a matter of minutes or hours. Some should be "intermediate range," expected to occur in a matter of days or weeks. Some should be long range, expected to occur only after one or more months of instruction.

Some Implications for Career Guidance

So far I have argued that implicit in any instructional program--and that would include career guidance--is the assumption that the program and each of its component will affect (change) the participants in some positive way. Some of the changes are likely to be immediate, for example, changes in knowledge and attitudes. It is to be hoped and expected that other program effects will manifest themselves over a longer period of time, in the form of wise decisions, job satisfaction, etc.

And I have said that a part of the evaluator's task is to decide what changes in participants a given program is intended to produce and then to figure out how to measure the extent to which those changes occur. If the intention is to produce changes in a student's self knowledge, for example, how are we to conceptualize and assess "self knowledge?" How are we to determine whether or not it increases during a particular period of time, and by how much?

Programs of career guidance and career education are presumably designed to facilitate "career development." But there appears to be no generally accepted way of conceptualizing and operationally defining (measuring) "career development." Most career counselors apparently prefer to avoid thinking about the problem. Some seem to make the assumption that since no one has apparently tried very hard to solve the problem, it must not be very important. However if we start from a common sense point of view, we can at least describe some of the categories of outcomes for which career educators seem to be striving. Having taken that step, we might then think about how to develop procedures for observing and measuring change in each of our categories. Following that, we might be able to develop more effective ways of actually producing the wanted changes. And with experience, we should be able to revise and improve our list of outcomes and outcome measures.

I would suggest that five kinds of indicators are needed to assess the effects of career education, broadly defined.

I. General skills. These are skills that people obviously need for any job or profession. Normally they are learned at home and in regular classes at school. When they have not been learned, "career educators" may have a special role to play, e.g., by developing some kind of remedial programs.

A. Ability to communicate.

1. reading
2. writing
3. listening
4. speaking

B. Ability to work cooperatively with other people.

1. superordinates
2. colleagues
3. subordinates

C. Self management

1. planning, e.g., homework, budgets, etc.
2. staying on schedule, e.g., getting homework done, getting to class on time, etc.

II. Self knowledge--knowledge that enables one to predict his/her preferences and performance on future occasions.

A. Clarity about one's own values--what one is likely to feel is important in the long run--is one interested primarily in money, prestige, leisure time, etc.

B. Preferred vocational role--does one prefer to take initiative and responsibility, or to let others make policy, major decisions?

C. Vocational skills--which of one's skills and abilities are useful in making a living

D. Competitive ability--how does one's respective abilities compare with those of other persons--peers in particular

III. Knowledge about those aspects of the world that are likely to influence one's future welfare.

A. Occupational trends

B. Political trends

   C. Economic trends

   D. How people find, get, and hold jobs. What people do to get ahead on a job.

IV. Beliefs and attitudes about work and workers.

   A. Belief that people should expect to work for a living and not be supported by someone else

   B. Belief that it is one's responsibility to give a day's work for day's pay

   C. Belief that many if not most work activities can be planned and shaped--or reshaped if necessary--to make them satisfying as well as efficient.

V. Specific job skills. (Obviously there are too many jobs and job skills to be listed here, and most job skills will need to be learned on the job.)

   A. Abstract skills, requiring application of technical concepts

   B. Persuasive skills

   etc.

Now all that I have suggested in this section are some categories of possible outcome measures. But if we can agree on what needs to be measured, we can then look for or invent the needed instruments and procedures, and then we can design instructional procedures to produce changes on those measures.

Additional Consideration: Example Evaluating the Career Counseling Workshop

I've said that the first evaluation task is to decide on instructional or program goals and outcome measures. I would add at this point that the decision about the kind of outcome measures to be employed is not one that the evaluator makes by merely consulting his/her own preferences. He/she must instead take cognizance of the answers to two related questions, namely (1) who is going to make important judgments about the program or project to be evaluated, and (2) on what criteria will their judgments be based. After all, workshops and other educational programs are constantly being evaluated by persons who will make decisions affecting the future of those programs--persons who won't use the procedures the professional evaluators recommend. Using the workshops developed recently by our own career counseling project at UCLA for an example, I believe that there are five important sets of judges, and that each set of judges employs different criteria--wants different kinds of information about the project:

1. There are the people who made the decision to fund the project. They will need information that will indicate that the money has been well spent. It seems probably that the information which they will find most useful will consist of the impressions and opinions of persons who have participated in the project, or have heard about--persons who have credibility in the eyes of the project funders.

2. There is the project evaluator. We haven't seen this person yet, but it seems likely that the project evaluator will pay attention to whatever objective data we are able to provide about changes that occur in participants and will perhaps be less impressed with the opinions of the observers.

3. There are the participants themselves. School people who devote several full days to our project will want to know that they have learned something they can use--that they have not wasted their time. In several respects they are our most important evaluators. But it is predictable that their needs, preparation, expectations, the situations in which they work, and work roles will differ, and that what is very useful to one will seem less useful to another. One of our tasks is to help them to understand what is useful--how to apply what we teach them.

4. There is the project staff. As well as providing a useful service,

Professor Healy and I want to learn something from this workshop that will enable us to do a better job with future workshops and classes. We want additional general rules or guidelines about what works best in career counseling workshops--what makes them effective.

5. There are our professional colleagues, in this and other universities, in the counseling profession, etc.

It may be useful, in light of what I have said about evaluation thus far, very briefly to review what the career counseling workshop is about. In my view we are trying to advance career counseling in six different ways, and evaluation data are therefore needed at six different phases or steps.

At UCLA we and our students are

1. developing new and more useful concepts about and procedures for career counseling.

Particularly in this project we are

2. developing methods and materials for teaching those concepts and procedures to persons who will be in a position to use them to improve career counseling in the schools.

3. In the project we are testing the effectiveness of some of those instructional methods and materials on several hundred working educators.

4. To the extent that our instructional methods are effective we will help those educators to make changes--presumably improvements--in their own schools.

5. As a result of the new procedures which the educators (the participants in our workshop) introduce into their schools, the students in those schools will acquire abstract concepts and intellectual skills that they would not otherwise acquire.

6. The students in turn will apply their concepts and skills in making better career choices than they could make without those skills.

Following this line of reasoning I believe that Professor Healy and the project staff should provide the five groups of judges with the following materials and information.

1. Documents about career counseling. Our statements about career counseling, e.g., the framework should be available for inspection by any interested persons, including our colleagues in career counseling. These documents should be judged on such criteria as clarity, comprehensiveness, and whether they make sense to thoughtful informed people.

2. Documents describing the workshop. Workshop procedures should be described in enough detail so that they can be replicated. We should say what steps we took, including the materials used at each step, and in what order.

3. Information about the responses of the participants to workshop materials and procedures.

   a. indications of interest in the workshop materials

   b. evidence that particular concepts had been understood

4. Information about actions taken by the workshop members.

   a. evidence that concrete actions had been taken by individuals such as the making of assignments (to oneself) and carrying out those assignments.

   b. evidence that action had been taken as team members, e.g., the making of plans, putting the plans into operation in the schools, assessing the effects of the plans on students.

Some Unsolved Problems

There are at least four sets of problems which arise in my own graduate courses and which will no doubt arise in workshops which make it difficult to apply the evaluation plan described above. So far as I know, no one has come up with solutions to these problems.

1. Individual differences. The participants in any course or workshop with which I have ever had anything to do always comprised an exceedingly heterogeneous group--great differences in previous preparation, interest, time and energy available, willingness to work, willingness to consider ideas they hadn't heard before, expectations about what they should learn, beliefs about how classes and workshops should be conducted, willingness to participate in evaluation efforts, to do home work, etc. An adequate evaluation must take all such relevant individual differences into account.

2. Counselor beliefs. Many, perhaps most educators seem to believe that educational evaluation is another useless educational fad, a waste of time, and perhaps ultimately impossible. They seem more interested in persuading me that it can't be done than in learning how to do it.

3. Evaluation anxiety. Even though I insist that it is my methods that I am trying to evaluate rather than the students when I try to gather information about what I have taught, students believe that is they and not my methods in which I'm really interested. And of course as long as I have to give grades--and I don't believe in not giving grades--they are partly right.

4. Time. As noted above, any attempt to find out what my methods have taught requires that students devote some time and effort to showing me what they have learned. Even when they are not anxious, being people they are unwilling to devote more than minimual time.

As a consequence of these considerations I have tried to develop work samples which also serve as learning exercises and which students find intrinsically interesting. Each work sample is a part of a larger "instructional package" designed to teach students to make at least a limited application of the concepts I'm trying to teach. (The case summary, Elkhorn School is an example.) I've had partial success with these but have not yet figured out how to cope with the fact that some students want the instructor to make learning both amusing and effortless, nor the fact that even some teachers fail to realize what a complicated process instruction and evaluation really are.

EVALUATION: DEFINITIONS AND PROPOSITIONS

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

Definitions:

1. Instructional program. Any planned set of activities designed to effect changes in student (or client) attitudes, beliefs, feelings, or actions.

2. Program evaluation. The gathering and analysis of objective information about the effects, positive and negative, of an instructional program on the persons for whom it was intended.

   In order to be able to evaluate a program, or a component of a program, e.g., a lesson or counseling session, it is necessary to have

   a. an accurate procedure for estimating--measuring--the changes that the program is designed to effect.

   b. instructional, or counseling, or administrative operations (which comprise the program, or a component of the program) that are repeatable upon demand.

   c. procedures for showing that observed changes that occurred in students or clients were a consequence of the program, or component, and not a result of extraneous factors.

3. Program objectives, or goals. The procedures that are used to measure or estimate changes in students or clients.

4. Discipline. A branch of knowledge or learning, e.g., mathematics, history, counseling.

   Any discipline is comprised of (a) concepts and propositions, and (b) procedures for generating and testing concepts and propositions.

   Examples of concepts from Economics: market, profit, gross national product, inflation, stagflation, etc.

   Examples of principles (propositions from Economics): If the only ultimate check on population is misery, then the population will grow until it is miserable enough to stop...Any technical improvement will enable population to grow and will soon merely enable more people to live in misery than before... Population, increasing geometrically, will outrun the means of subsistence, increasing arithmetically.

Examples of concepts from versification. Versification traditionally makes uses of such concepts as foot, line, pentameter, iambic, etc. Kenneth Koch makes use of such propositions in teaching children to write "modern" poetry as the following: Good poems can teach children the importance of feelings and of one's secret imaginative life...The writing of poetry can help children make discoveries and express feelings.

Examples from counseling: Counseling deals with such concepts as stress, psychological well being, job satisfaction, interpersonal conflict, fulfillment of potentialities, coping. I make use of such propositions as: Inability to cope with daily problems of living is a common cause of psychological stress. Many young people are worried because of their inability to decide on career goals. Wise career planning requires knowledge of one's own capabilities and the characteristics of potential jobs.

5. Understanding. Although the understanding that comes from learning a concept or principle is not observable--it presumably consists of changes in the brain structures or processes--it results in performances and products which can be observed. For example, the following poem written by one of Kenneth Koch's 6th grade students may be taken as a "product" of the boy's learning. (I am not prepared to specify the concepts and principles of versification exemplified by the poem, but I am convinced that Koch could do so).

> Hatred is like a pen drawing two lines far apart, and when they
>   get to know each other, the pen connects them.
> Fear is like the lines never connecting.
> Love is like they were never apart.
> Like is when they are a fourth of an inch apart.
>
> Bill Constant, 6th grade

EVALUATION: DEFINITIONS AND PROPOSITIONS (cont.)

Propositions:

1. Most educational and counseling programs and procedures can't be properly evaluated because their goals have not been adequately defined.
2. A person who understands a concept or principle (proposition) can do a number of things a person who lacks that understanding is unable to do, e.g.,
   a. notice (observe) something, e.g., that there is something unusual about the lawn, or about one's skin, or about someone's performance.
   b. classify and label what one has observed, e.g., "It's crabgrass," or "It's a melanoma," or "Karla appears to have been doing a minimal amount of work for a week or more."
   c. specify criterial attributes, e.g., "I know it's crabgrass because I see that it has..." or "She appears her usual self in some respects, but she seems listless and she fails to..."
   d. make useful predictions, e.g., "If it is ignored, it will go away," or, "Unless it is dealt with now it will take over the lawn," or "Unless something is done she'll lose her job, or fail her classes..."
   e. ask useful questions, "What is my neighbor, who has no crabgrass, doing that I'm not doing?" Or, "Has there been a change in Karla's personal life, e.g., a fight with her husband? Has there been a change in her health?"
   f. consider alternative course of action, e.g., "Should I spend the time and effort it will take to pull out the crabgrass myself? Are there other ways of getting rid of crabgrass? What's wrong with a crabgrass lawn?" Or, "Do I have time and the knowledge required to counsel Karla? Should I refer her to someone?..."
   g. estimate the probable consequences of each alternative, e.g., "If I cultivate a crabgrass lawn, the neighbors will make snide remarks and my wife will be embarrassed."
   h. make a plausible decision (one which takes account of probable consequences of the different alternatives) within a reasonable period of time, etc.
   h. make a plausible decision (one which takes account of probable consequences of the different alternatives) within a reasonable period of time.

EVALUATION: DEFINITIONS AND PROPOSITIONS (cont.)

3. Most educational programs are intended to effect several kinds of changes, e.g., in attitudes, in ability to perform.
4. The purpose of instruction is to teach people concepts and principles (propositions) derived from academic disciplines.
5. The purpose of counseling is to teach people to apply particular concepts and principles in solving problems of daily living.
6. In planning an instructional program, e.g., course, workshop, etc., several questions relating to evaluation should be kept in mind and answered concurrently with the planning, so as to make evaluation of the instructional procedures feasible.
    a. What concepts and principles are to be taught?
    b. In what kinds of situations, or to what kinds of problems, are they to be applied?
    c. What kinds of "performance," or actions, or "products" relating to these concepts is wanted?
    d. How can these kinds of performances, etc., be observed and an accurate record made?
    e. What actions on the part of the instructor, and the students, are likely to result in the performance or product that will indicate that learning has occurred?
    f. How can I get a measure of each student's ability to perform (i.e., baseline data) at the time instruction or counseling begins?
7. The same concepts and procedures that are useful in evaluating instructional programs, e.g., classes, workshops, etc., apply to counseling and administrative programs.

SOME PROPOSITIONS ABOUT TEACHING, COUNSELING, AND EVALUATION

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

1. Problem solving requires the application of concepts and rules--concepts and rules that enable the problem solver to gather needed information, analyze it and arrive at a solution. A computer program, for example, is an example of a problem solving routine which makes use of a sequence of small, relatively simple steps to solve complex problems.

2. A major difference between people who are able to solve problems, e.g., problems in mathematics, in writing, auto mechanics, etc., and in daily living, and people who cannot solve problems, is a difference in mental habits.

3. A major function of teachers and counselors is to teach students the kinds of mental habits that will enable them to cope with (solve) problems outside of the classroom.

4. Program evaluation has two purposes: (a) to provide information about the effectiveness of the methods used by teachers and counselors; and (b) to provide information needed to improve those methods--make them more effective.

5. Teachers and counselors who endorse the first three postulates stated above usually have one or both of two goals:

   a. to teach that some thing is the case, e.g., that George Washington was the first president; that the alphabet goes a, b, c, d... etc.; that 2 + 2 = 4, that Kabul is the capitol of Afghanistan; that in a democracy the people (or their representatives) make the laws and elect the administrators, etc.

   b. to teach how to do something, e.g., to write a letter, play a musical instrument, speak a foreign language, solve a problem involving quantities--amounts of something, to predict particular kinds of events, etc.

6. Teaching anyone how to do something involves explaining (defining and giving examples of)

   a. concepts, such as noun, verb, number, democracy, neutron, etc.

   b. principles and rules, such as "a singular noun requires a singular verb," "bread nourishes," "to live together people have to have law and the laws have to be enforced," $r_{xy} = \frac{\Sigma xy}{\sqrt{(\Sigma_x^2)(\Sigma_y^2)}}$ etc.

7. Teaching also requires that the students be given guided practice in applying concepts, principles, and rules. Guided practice requires:
   a. a graded series of problems or exercises in which the students practice doing what we want them to learn, e.g., writing letters or essays, carrying on a conversation in Spanish, playing a piano, solving problems in arithmetic or statistics, etc. These exercises must require the application of the concepts and rules that the teacher intends to teach.
   b. the giving of feedback about their performance, or the products of their performance on each exercise, and having them practice some more in order to improve that performance. This trial and feedback process must be continued until the student is able to perform at an acceptable level--e.g., write an acceptable letter, get an acceptable number of items right on an arithmetic test, etc.
8. We assess a student's learning by observing that student's performance or products of performance to see if the student has correctly applied the concepts and rules that we want them to learn. The teacher of English composition, for example, reads the sentences which comprise the student's letter to see if nouns and verbs agree, etc.; the arithmetic teacher checks the student's work on story problems to see if the student has properly applied such concepts as addition, subtraction, etc.; the Spanish teacher listens to the student's conversation in Spanish to see if the student employs proper syntax, etc.
9. We evaluate the effectiveness of our instructional procedures by looking for improvements in the student's performance--i.e., by observing whether or not the student is able correctly to apply concepts and rules that he could not apply before or to a wider variety of problem situations.
10. Not all educational programs can be evaluated. A program (lesson, class, workshop, counseling session) that can be evaluated has identifiable characteristics that are lacking in other programs.
    a. the concepts, principles and rules that the students are expected to learn are specified.
    b. the kinds of problems and problem situations to which the concepts and rules are to be applied are made explicit.

c. The kinds of performance or products the students are expected to demonstrate or produce are made explicit.

d. The methods for observing, recording and evaluating the students' performance or products are made explicit.

Applications to Career Guidance

1. In developing a lesson, the plan for a guidance class, or a counseling interview, etc., the concepts and rules to be taught should be specified and defined in words the students should understand. Examples should be provided.

   In developing a systematic procedure for helping students plan and make decisions about their course of study and subsequent career, for example, a counselor would probably want to make use of such concepts as "aptitude," "entry level occupation," "vocational interest," "job trends," "job satisfaction," "information," "prediction," "decision," etc.

   The counselor would perhaps make use of such rules of thumb (guidelines) as "The best predictor of how a person will perform in the future is his past performance;" "Other things equal, a student should choose an occupation that builds on his/her strengths--enables him/her to do the thing he/she does best;" "Most people must expect to work in several different occupations during a life time;" "Whenever a choice is possible it is usually better to choose an occupation that presents more opportunities for advancement rather than one which offers fewer;" "The years one spends in entry occupations are not wasted if during that period the person learns useful things about him/her self and the world of work."

2. The individual developing a course, or lesson, or interview schedule would develop exercises or problems which require the application of the concepts and rules to be taught.

   The exercise which accompanies this lesson, for example, requires the student to employ a specified list of concepts in analyzing some information about a consultant's efforts to help some counselors deal with evaluation problems.

3. The exercises must be designed in such a way that each student will get practice in applying the concepts and rules, in performing or creating a product, to the end of developing more effective mental habits. In other words, the program developer must decide what kind of performance or product will indicate that the student understands and correctly applies the concepts and rules.

It must be the kind of performance or product that can be evaluated.

4. The program developer must figure out (a) how to get a record of the student's product or performance, and (b) the rules for evaluating the product. The rules must be sufficiently explicit that other knowledgeable persons can be trained to use them.

CASE SUMMARY "VICTORY AT SEA"

Garth Sorenson, UCLA

George Sylvester was sitting in the faculty room of the Elkhorn Community College trying to help Harold Becker and several other guidance counselors prepare for an evaluation visit. Harold and his colleagues had received a special grant for a project in career education. They had also agreed to have their project evaluated from time to time.

"What is your target population?" asked George. "Which categories of students are you trying to help?"

"Anyone who needs it," said Robert Wilson. "Anyone that we can get to come to our guidance class."

"Well don't you think that some students need guidance more than others? Maybe some of your students are doing all right on their own--or getting good guidance from teachers and parents. Maybe you should aim at the ones who haven't decided what to study, or who haven't developed good study habits."

"Dullsville," said James McHenry. "Besides, helping students with study habits isn't really counseling."

"I don't think it would be fair to restrict the guidance class in any way," said Harold. "I think that anyone who wants it should be allows to take it."

"Well, what do you teach in the guidance class?" asked George. "What are your objectives? What are you trying to accomplish?"

"That sounds like three different questions to me," said Harold. "Besides, although it is called a guidance class for administrative purposes, as counselors we are not really trying to teach anything. We are trying to promote career awareness and to promote self-knowledge."

"Do you have any outcome measures--any measures of self knowledge?" Roberta let her impatience show. "What is this, a doctoral examination? Why all the questions? Why don't you just let us tell you what we do? Why the doctoral exam?"

"It's an individual thing," said Harold. "You'd have to have a different test for each individual and that obviously isn't practical."

"OK," said George, "tell me what happens in the career guidance class."

"Let me tell you," said James. "We really got it all worked out. It's really slick. I learned in a behavioral mod workshop one time that you always have to have some kind of reinforcement to get people to do what you want them to do. Well, we give them a unit of credit. That's our reinforcement--their reward for enrolling in the class. As it works out, the unit of credit guarantees that we always have a good enrollment--enough for several sections each semester. And the fact that we've called it a class solves the problem of budget--finding funds for it. Funds are of course allocated on the basis of ADA (average daily attendance) in this district. The ADA in the guidance class is always high enough to keep the administrators happy."

CASE SUMMARY "VICTORY AT SEA" (cont.)

"And they are the real evaluators--the ones who count," said Roberta.

"Well, who takes the class?" asked George.

"Anyone, anyone at all," said James.

"People whose grade point average is a little low take it, and those who need a course to get them up to minimum load. A lot of athletes take it--and their girl friends."

"What does the instructor--or guidance counselor-- do in the course?" asked George.

"More doctoral questions!" said Roberta.

"One of the most successful things we've done in the course is to show a film entitled "Victory at Sea," said Harold.

"'Victory at Sea?' Is it about the U. S. Navy in WWII? The one that ran so many times on television?"

"Yea," said Harold. "It's a great film. It always goes over big. It teaches them something about the life of a sailor, and about patriotism. With the way things are going in the world, I think the stuff about patriotism is especially important."

Part II

"If I were the evaluator, instead of someone who is just trying to coach you, I'd recommend that you try to be more explicit about what you are trying to accomplish, and try to develop some outcome measures."

"We told you," said Roberta. "Self knowledge, information about the Navy and patriotism. I don't think you listen very well."

"Besides," said James, "Everyone knows that this evaluation stuff is a lot of bull--just something to keep the bureaucrats busy. Everyone knows that the really important educational outcomes are intangibles." He looked at George. "That means they can't be measured," he said.

"I think that we have adequate outcome measures," said Harold, "and that's the enrollment figures. The enrollments have gone up every semester since--well, since the course began. I think that is proof enough that the course is valuable."

"It's an elective course, and the students wouldn't take it unless they were getting something out of it." said Roberta.

"Well, just to get us started on evaluation, suppose you were to develop a standard set of questions to try to find out what they learned, just for a starter?"

"It's a lot of work, developing a test," said Harold. "Besides, I don't think the students would like it. I think it might adversely affect enrollments."

CASE SUMMARY "VICTORY AT SEA" (cont.)

"Well, just for purposes of discussion," said George," assume three things. Assume first that you had a test or other outcome measure that the students would accept. Second, assume that you've given it at the beginning of the course, and that if you wanted to you could give it again at the end. Third assume that the scores were higher on the second administration. Now, you want to know whether it was the guidance class that produced the gain, and more specifically if it was the film 'Victory at Sea'."

"Everybody knows that you can't measure the effects of an experience like that until years later," said Roberta. "And we don't have any resources for follow-up studies."

"Well, if you got big gains in scores, what else could it be other than 'Victory at Sea'?" asked James.

"Well, you've had some Navy recruiters here showing films. And I expect that your students still watch Television a lot. And maybe they read newspapers. And they talk to their friends. It seems to me that there are a lot of things that might produce changes in them. You need to know what specific changes your course is producing. Or do you?"

"I don't see how we could ever do it," said Harold, "even if we had some good outcome measures."

"You have several sections of the class. Suppose that for one semester you showed the film in some sections and not in others, and then looked for differences between sections."

"I don't think that would be ethical," said Roberta. "it wouldn't be fair to the students who didn't get to see the film. Besides, I don't think the administration would approve. You can't treat some students in a class differently than you treat the others. I don't think the system would permit it."

"If you'd ever been a teacher or a counselor you'd know it couldn't be done," said James. "I think you've been wasting our time. I think we need to get someone here who'll help us instead of just putting us on the spot with a lot of questions. Why don't you ever make any suggestions?"

"Nobody else has to evaluate their guidance classes," said Harold. "Why pick on us?"

"We've already purchased the film," said Roberta. "We have to keep showing the film in order to get our investment back."

Name________________________

WORKSHOP SATISFACTION SCALE

Circle the number which best expresses your view of our workshop on the following dimensions. Please write in any additional comments below item 5.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The purposes of this workshop were clear to me.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I was stimulated to think objectively about the topics presented.	5	4	3	2	1
3. Possible solutions to my problems were considered.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I have no guide for future action.	5	4	3	2	1
5. We worked together as a group.	5	4	3	2	1

Additional comments:

TO: CAREER COUNSELING TASK FORCE MEMBERS

Are there any specific concerns or issues you would like the workshop to address in the following forthcoming presentations? If there are, please indicate your suggestions below and return this sheet to a staff member.

Title of Presentation	Suggestions for Concerns/Issues to Be Discussed
Community-Educator Interface Panel	
Infusion	
Placement	
Field Trips	
Combatting Bias	
Evaluation	
Decision Making	
Self Awareness	

NOTE: In your workshop some of these topics may not be addressed. However, your consultant will refer you to information sources if asked.

NAME ______________________________

This exercise provides a review of some of the material discussed in the workshop. Your answers will enable us to determine which modules need improvement. Please answer as best you can. You can receive a sheet with the correct answers when you turn this in.

Circle true or false:

1. A sequence of work-related positions held by an individual over a lifetime represents our concept of career. True False
2. Integrating career education into existing classroom teaching is the way we have defined infusion. True False
3. The lifelong process of creating oneself through working or preparing to work refers to career development. True False
4. A set of jobs with similar duties and requirements is another way we have defined career. True False
5. For adolescents, society has more or less established a limited number of tasks to be achieved in order for the person to proceed smoothly in a career. True False
6. Career and vocational education are for all practical purposes the same. True False
7. It's important to specify the intended outcomes of the program being developed. True False
8. Operational plans should assign responsibility for results to planning groups, not to individuals. True False
9. It's almost always preferable to plan for, rather than with, those whom the plans will affect. True False
10. The Strong-Campbell Inventory provides information about interests but not about abilities. True False
11. Results from the Strong-Campbell Inventory have been shown to be more reliable for high school students than for college-age students. True False
12. Sorenson (in the first two sessions of the workshop) suggested that a person has a problem when both motivation and ignorance or misinformation are present. True False
13. The purpose of the field interview approach (a job search strategy) is to negotiate a job with an employer. True False
14. The function of a resume is to get an interview. True False
15. Flanagan's quality of life survey can be used to show the importance of certain areas of life, and one's satisfaction with these areas. True False

16. The case of Joe Taylor illustrates that it is not appropriate for a counselor to engage the client in reviewing the realism of his or her goals. True False

17. A "target group" is a group of people who share a common problem that they want to solve but don't know how to solve. True False

18. The community panelists agreed that educators could best help students by helping them to get paid work experience. True False

19. Communication skills are invaluable to obtaining and maintaining employment according to the community panelists. True False

20. There really aren't general points about a student's beliefs, history and feelings for an adviser to establish in career counseling interviews. The main thing is for the teacher or counselor to establish rapport with the student. True False

21. A comprehensive career counseling program includes the provision for an adviser to personally secure a student's commitment to use a service before assigning him or her to it. True False

22. Formative evaluation refers to systematically examining a teaching or counseling strategy which you are trying out in order to improve it. True False

23. Formative evaluation is specialized activity which is properly the domain of professional evaluators. True False

24. Using a circle graph to portray how much time and energy one allocates to different life roles helps keep any one role in perspective. True False

25. Anything a teacher or counselor does in self-awareness will benefit students. True False

26. Counselors have traditionally been supportive of women who indicate a desire to work in the professional fields. True False

27. An interest inventory is considered culturally biased if it asks questions that refer to things or activities that may be beyond the direct experiences of some groups within the population. True False

28. The validity of most interest inventories is lower for students who do not have a middle-class, Anglo background. True False

29. List five components of an ideal career guidance system.

30. Career counseling can be represented as having four conceptual areas. Describe what should happen in each phase briefly.

Workshop Impact

Please check whichever best reflects what attendance at the Career Counseling Workshop has led you to do. Use Column A to say that you have tried the practice or idea already, Column B to say that you think the idea or practice is promising and you plan to try it, Column C to indicate you believe the practice is not useful for your school, Column D to indicate you don't recall the practice or idea, and Column E to state you missed its presentation.

Activity	Col A (have tried)	Col B (will try)	Col C (not useful)	Col D (don't recall)	Col E (missed presentation)
1. Complete own autobiography according to instructions in Career Counseling Notebook.					
2. Have students do career autobiography described in Notebook.					
3. Have students or colleagues do "career wire" presented by Dr. Healy.					
4. Have students or colleagues debate pros and cons of planning as illustrated by Dr. Quinn's presentation.					
5. Teach colleagues or students about career counseling through case method modeled by Dr. Sorenson.					
6. Use Dr. Sorenson's case or facsimile with students in career guidance.					
7. Use baseline list introduced by Dr. Healy to help formulate your school's program.					
8. Try to obtain the information about student career concerns suggested by Dr. Healy's presentation on interviewing.					
9. Use circle graph described by Dr. Healy in career guidance.					

Activity	Col A (have tried)	Col B (will try)	Col C (not useful)	Col D (don't recall)	Col E (missed presentation)
10. Reconsider school policy on interest testing following Ms. Barbara McGowan's presentation of the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory.					
11. Reconsider your own career direction following the Strong-Campbell.					
12. Reflect upon your career as a consequence of the Career Growth Index which you completed at outset and are asked to repeat.					
13. Teach some of the job search procedures illustrated at UCLA Placement Center.					
14. Use some of materials on job seeking distributed by the UCLA Placement Center.					
15. Employ some of the career infusion ideas from the packet of ideas given your team.					
16. Apply some of the career infusion ideas recommended by Maurice Flora on Dec. 8th.					
17. Use references or tests from the Career Skills Assessment Program distributed by Dr. Healy.					
18. Use ideas about career guidance class given by Ed Muraski on December 8th.					
19. Follow some of advice on career centers offered by Pat Cook on December 8th.					
20. Try out ideas and practices suggested by John Rothrock on December 8th.					
21. Conduct a community educator interface panel for staff and parents at your school in order to promote cooperation.					

Activity	Col A (have tried)	Col B (will try)	Col C (not useful)	Col D (don't recall)	Col E (missed presentation)
22. Follow up one or more leads from community-educator interface panel.					
23. Arrange field trip similar to UCLA one for staff or students.					
24. Use lyrics/poetry to infuse career development as illustrated by Lou Markert on Dec. 8th.					
25. Have colleagues or students rate importance of school meeting Flanagan's 15 values, as Sorenson modeled.					

PARTICIPANT'S EVALUATION FORM

Please answer the following questions so that we may be able to determine how useful this presentation has been for you as well as what changes are needed.

Title of Presentation: ______________________________

Date of Presentation: ______________________________

1. What are some of the key ideas or activities presented?

   a.

   b.

   c.

2. What is your assessment of this presentation in the following areas?

   a. usefulness to your school's program

      ____ not useful ____ of some use ____ very useful

   b. interest of topic to you personally

      ____ no interest ____ some interest ____ high interest

3. Which of the following needs to be modified?

	No change needed	Some change needed	Major change needed
a. organization of content	____	____	____
b. length of presentation	____	____	____
c. pace of delivery	____	____	____
d. practicality of ideas	____	____	____

4. Any additional suggestions or specific ways of making the changes you indicated above?

GLOSSARY

CAREER - The sequence of major positions occupied by a person throughout his preoccupational, occupational, and postoccupational life; includes work-related roles such as those of student, employee, and pensioner, together with complementary avocational, familial, and civic roles. Careers exist only as people pursue them; they are person-centered.

WORK - The systematic pursuit of an objective valued by oneself (even if only for survival) and desired by others; directed and consecutive, it requires the expenditure of effort. It may be compensated (paid work) or uncompensated (volunteer work or an avocation). The objective may be intrinsic enjoyment of the work itself, the structure given to life by the work role, the economic support which work makes possible, or the type of leisure which it facilitates.

TASK - A performance required at work or in play.

POSITION - A group of tasks to be performed by one person; in industry, performed for pay. Positions exist whether vacant or occupied; they are task- and outcome-, not person-defined.

JOB - A group of similar, paid positions requiring some similar attributes in a single organization. Jobs are task-, outcome-, and organization-centered.

OCCUPATION - A group of similar jobs found in various organizations. Occupations are task-, economy-, and society-oriented.

VOCATION - An occupation with commitment, distinguished primarily by its psychological as contrasted with its economic meaning; ego-involving, meaningful to the individual as an activity, not solely for its productive, distributive, or service outcome and its economic rewards, although these too are valued. Vocations are task-, outcome-, and person-centered.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT - The lifelong process of creating oneself through working or preparing to work. When development involves increasingly effective observation, exploration, planning, implementation of opportunities, and evaluation, development is positive. One's career development can be characterized as proceeding through the stages of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline because human existence involves these stages and career is an ongoing part of that existence.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT TASKS - the sets of performances related to the work obligations which are expected at each stage of life. Presumably human beings move sequentially through periods of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline and withdrawal in relation to work. If this is true, one can identify general performances which a person must accomplish in order to succeed and be satisfied. For example, during exploration every person should become aware of her work-related talents and interests and identify and then enter suitable training and work opportunities. During establishment, she should be mastering the work she has selected, expanding her skills, and sharpening and deepening some interests through that work.

CAREER EDUCATION - the set of activities designed to assist persons to create a productive and satisfying career for themselves; it includes educational and vocational counseling and guidance, vocational education and placement, cooperative education and community participation in classroom instruction related to work, and the efforts of every classroom teacher to integrate objectives such as self-awareness, educational and occupational awareness, and decision-making and planning into the traditional curriculum objectives of his/her subject. Career education seeks to enable people to achieve career development tasks.

CAREER CENTER - a collection of resources, including occupational and training program literature, audiovisuals, simulations and work samples, and networks of people designed to assist people in accomplishing career development tasks.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT INFUSION - a process of delivering subject matter instruction so that the learner acquires self-understanding, occupational awareness, or knowledge or practice in career decision making as well as achieving subject matter goals.

CAREER GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING - individualized teaching designed to enable a person to identify suitable ways of fulfilling his or her work obligations and to assist him or her in overcoming the obstacles which arise.

DEFINITIONS - HUMAN EQUITY

SEXISM: Any attitude, action or institution that subordinates or assigns roles to a person or group because of their sex. Sexism can be individual, cultural or institutional; intentional or unintentional. There can also be sexism by omission. Originally, this term was used to describe practices that discriminate against girls and women, but it has been expanded to include any usage that unfairly limits the aspirations or attributes or either sex.

SEX DISCRIMINATION: Sexist practices, policies or procedures that are specifically prohibited by law.

SEX BIAS: An attitude or behavior which reflects adversely upon a person or group because of sex, but may not be covered under present legislation.

SEX FAIR: Practices and behaviors that treat males and females similarly; may imply seprate but equal.

SEX AFFIRMATIVE: Programs, policies or procedures that attempt to overcome the effects of sex discrimination.

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: Programs designed to increase opportunities for women, minorities and under-represented groups.

FEMINIST: Any person (man or woman) who believes that women should have political economic and social rights equal to those of men. (Webster's Dictionary of American Language, College Edition 1957.)

SUSAN W. MILLER, Educational Consultant.

(continued)

DISADVANTAGED: Persons (other than handicapped persons) who have academic or economic disadvantages and require special services, assistance or programs in order to enable them to succeed in vocational education programs.

ACADEMIC DISADVANTAGED: Persons who lack reading and writing skills, mathematical skills or perform below grade level.

ECONOMIC DISADVANTAGED: Persons who have a family income at or below national poverty level, whose parent(s) or guardian is unemployed, who are recipients of public assistance or are institutionalized or under State guardianship.

HANDICAPPED: A person who is mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired or other health impaired -- or with specific learning disabilities. 503 and 504 include alcohol and drug abusers.

LIMITED ENGLISH-SPEAKING: Persons who were not born in the United States or whose native tongue is a language other than English and who came from environments where a language other than English is dominant, and by reasons thereof, have difficulties speaking and understanding instruction in the English language.

SUSAN W. MILLER, M.A. Educational Consultant and Career Counselor.

Original = for team
Carbon = for UCLA Staff

TEAM PROGRESS SHEET

Name of Team (School): ______________________________

Date: __________________________________

Please comment briefly on your progress and any accomplishments to date in the following areas of career guidance planning:

1. Setting goals:

2. Getting student involvement in particular career guidance activities:

3. Creating new guidance activities or coordinating current activities:

4. Involving the school staff in career guidance:

5. Securing materials and resources for career guidance:

6. Evaluating career guidance at school:

7. Which of the above areas will your team be implementing during the remainder of this school year?

8. With whom in your school and in the district have you had a chance to share and to discuss the plans your team has made so far?

At the school level:

At the district level:

9. How often, on the average, has your team been able to meet outside of the workshop? (Please check one of the responses below):

_____ none at all

_____ once or twice a month

_____ three to four times a month

_____ more than four times a month